The Nation.

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The Week.

If the Duma, which assembled on May 10, is undeniably meeting under a cloud, it falls nearly in the realm of political miracles that it should be meeting at all. Whoever, three years ago, had dared predict that a Russian Parliament was to assemble on any terms, would have passed for a lunatical optimist. Accordingly, it is the part of wisdom not to dwell too much upon the niggardliness of the new fundamental law, nor even upon unseasonable repression by the Czar or divided counsels among the reformers. All these things were to be expected, and it is more profitable to fix one's hope upon the momentous fact that a popularly elected legislature is actually in session in St. Petersburg to-day. Immediate results may seem small, but the moment the Czar receives the delegates he gives up a portion of his power that probably no Czar will ever be able to reclaim. However slight the concessions of self-government, they are irrevocable, and Russia is started on the road, however long and difficult, that leads to free and representative government. This great good should surely outweigh minor evils that partially obscure this day of triumph for liberal ideals. The plan of testing the strength of the Duma and the temper of the Czar by a prompt appeal for political amnesty seems a wise one, but the Duma could not have been expected to limit itself to this minimum programme when such urgent matters (to mention no others) as the land problem and the ascertaining of its own powers are in men's hearts. It is a situation that calls for the utmost tact and sympathy on the part of the Czar. His insight must supplement the arid letter of political memorials. Have he or his councillors the capacity to read the dumb aspiration of the representatives of the mills, and mines, and fields? Under almost identical circumstances, Louis XVI., while the States-General was sitting at Versailles on what history has decided were his momentous days, adorned his diary with the curt memorandum, "*Rien.*" It all meant nothing to him. The Czar's attitude towards the Russian States-General is by far the most interesting personal problem of our time. His address to the delegates, if rather colorless, at least avoided all offence.

It is most painful to every American to see the President involved in a question of personal veracity. Sharp differences of opinion we are accustomed to; but it is something new, and distinctly unpleasant, to have the Chief Magistrate charge that a certain statement about him is "a deliberate and unqualified falsehood," and then to have the statement reaffirmed in detail, with a threat to produce further evidence if it is needed. But the only wonder is that such an unhappy fate has not ere this befallen "the most reckless talker that ever lived in the White House," as an old Senator has characterized Mr. Roosevelt. His confidence has been amazingly respected; but at last he has awkwardly stirred up two men, Senator Tillman and ex-Senator Chandler, who have small regard for the minor proprieties, and to whom the fact that a communication was confidential constitutes no objection to blurting out what they know about it. The unhappy effect of their revelations does not stop with the question whether or not the President was right in saying in his haste that all men who tell a different tale from his are liars. More damaging than any possible verbal misunderstanding is the admitted fact that this most direct and above-board of men was pursuing his ends by subterranean and slippery methods.

Was Chandler an envoy from President Roosevelt to Senator Tillman, or from Senator Tillman to President Roosevelt? This is the question to which our attention is being diverted; but it does not touch the main issue. The essential fact, which President Roosevelt and Attorney-General Moody admit, is that they were forming a compact with the Democratic leaders in order to pass the Rate bill. In so doing, they were, we maintain, wholly within the bounds of morality and propriety. But the President wisely refused to commit himself to any "phraseology"; he was for "essence." He was "entirely willing" to accept any amendment "that did not seek to grant a broad review"; and when an amendment was proposed which granted the broadest sort of broad review, he was delighted with it, and declared that "no genuine friend of the bill can object to it without stultifying himself." So keen was his enthusiasm for the amendment to which he had always been unalterably opposed that, without a word of warning to his Democratic confederates, without a hint to his own go-between, Mr. Moody, he jumped into the galley with Senator Aldrich. Naturally, Mr. Moody, in the first flush of surprise and irritation, expressed himself to Senators Tillman and Bailey as "flabbergasted." "There was nothing," writes Attorney-General Moody, in cooler mood, "in the conversations between the Senators and me which in any way bound you to any particular amendment, or in the slightest degree impaired your liberty at any time to acquiesce in any amendment which you should deem expedient and in the public interest." Absolutely nothing but a fantastic notion that, even when a man is actuated by the purest of motives and devoted to the loftiest ideals, he should keep faith with his allies.

The due process of law, the slowness of which is so trying to President Roosevelt and others of ardent temperament, seems to have done the work for the Paper Trust. In the Federal Court at St. Paul the defendants, who are accused of restraining and monopolizing trade, have practically confessed guilt; and the prosecution has secured a perpetual injunction against the unlawful combination and conspiracy of manufacturers. Attorney-General Moody says, "This terminates the litigation. It is a complete victory for the United States." More than twenty corporations united in the General Paper Company, and through that organization sold practically all of their product. Such a union the courts declare to be a violation of the Sherman Anti-Trust law, and the company will accordingly be dissolved. Considerable time, we must admit, has been consumed by these suits. The first petition was filed on December 27, 1904—nearly a year and a half ago. Of course, an executive order by an omniscient and benevolent despot could have settled the business in ten minutes. But it is only once in a century or so that we choose a President who is both omniscient and benevolent. Our frame of government, with its irritating checks and balances, is intended not so much for the present happy era as for those long stretches when fallible or even malevolent men get into office. In spite of checks and balances, the price of paper in the territory controlled by the General Paper Company has fallen from $2.25 a hundredweight to $1.85.

Secretary Hitchcock warns the West that the twenty-one indictments returned by the Portland grand jury against the men accused of timber stealing in Oregon will not be the last. His agents are at work in the Middle Western States on charges of a like nature. The indictment of the Crook, Lake, and Klamath County operators illustrates the need for the most general investigation. At the head of the list stands the name of F. W. Gilchrist, the second largest owner of vessels on the Great Lakes, and a heavy lumber dealer of

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Alpena, Mich. Patrick Culligan, Gilchrist's associate, who was also indicted, is a banker and a man of wealth. Three members of the firm of Elkins & Co., lawyers of Prineville, Ore., are also included in the twenty-one, and at the bottom of the list stands the name of Edgar N. White, a Portland saloonkeeper. The old method was used, it appears; these men secured dupes to file timber claims under the defective Timber and Stone act, who, after completing title, turned over the land to their employers. This plan has the merit of age, but little else, to recommend it now. The Interior Department's agents have become so well trained that they can see "the man behind," without waiting for a row over the "commission" of the entryman.

The standpatters in Congress are again embarrassed, this time by the refusal of Secretary Taft to assume responsibility for an order requiring the Isthmian Canal Commission to buy only American goods. The Commission recently purchased 20,000 barrels of English cement at a saving of 37 cents a barrel on the price demanded by American manufacturers. But the Ohio cement-makers have got Senator Dick to introduce a resolution which would shut out European supplies for the canal. The Canal Commission fears combinations of American manufacturers and dealers which would result in extortionate prices, and the puzzling problem is how to "protect" American interests without leaving the Commission at the mercy of persons who may attempt to corner the market in supplies needed for canal work. This question, coming before the matter of the demand for free building materials in aid of San Francisco has been quieted, promises to furnish matter for debate in Congress and more campaign material for this fall's Congressional elections.

It would be demoralizing in the extreme, we take it, for the Filipinos to acquire all at once the benefits of humane and liberal policies. They would doubtless experience the discomforts of children who should receive at Christmas, say, a whole year's allowance of sweetmeats. At any rate, we are running no such risk in our treatment of them. After several years' consideration we took off 25 per cent. of the Dingley tariff rates to see what would happen. Nothing happened, and this year the impetuous House of Representatives was preparing to concede 50 per cent. more. But the wiser Senate committee did not propose to spoil the nation's wards by such ill-considered liberality. It thought best to give nothing at all. Yet President Roosevelt and Secretary Taft, benevolent uncles, are laboring with the Senate to secure "just a bite"—another 25 per cent. of relief. In exchange for this they are reported to be willing to relinquish that very important provision of the House bill which promised free trade with the islands after 1909. That is the year when the coastwise shipping laws are to go into effect with the Philippines. Possibly, if we judiciously dole out another 25 per cent. by that time, the Filipinos may be even prosperous enough to pay their additional freight bills.

"Regular" Republicans of Pennsylvania suggest to Senator Knox that if he will consent to be elected Governor, it will be an "easy step" to the Presidency. The uninformed might detect in any such programme, on the contrary, a distinct retrogression. To go from the Senate to Harrisburg would, in the present disorganized state of the party, effectually shelve any man of doubtful Presidential stature. The appeal at this time, of course, is purely selfish. A Democratic State Treasurer has just taken office and promised to cut off the graft that formerly fattened the organization. Some $13,000,000 of surplus State funds are to be taken out of the control of the machine banks. The "Lincoln" Republicans mean to hold their State convention at the end of May, a week in advance of the "Regulars," and the Democratic leaders are in a mood to form an alliance with any reform element of the dominant party that splits off from the Penrose organization. Senator Knox might save Pennsylvania to "the party of McKinley and Roosevelt," but we see no chance, in that event, of shattering the unbroken precedent that the "banner State's" Governors never get to the White House.

A pert paragrapher remarked a few days ago, apropos of the arrest and fining of a citizen of Warrensburg, Mo., for making a false return as to his personal property, that "it will be many a long day before that particular wave of reform reaches New York." It may be retorted that this particular species of reform is not likely to last long in Missouri, if Gov. Folk has his way. He has appointed a commission to revise the State revenue laws, and has suggested that the tax on personal property should be removed. "A tax on conscience" is the way Gov. Folk characterizes that part of the present system which turns respectable members of society into arrant liars once a year. "It does not reach the tax-dodger, and it discourages investment," adds Mr. Folk. In his view, the retention of the personal-property tax, with the consequent disregard for the law that is indicated by the annual perjuries, is a serious menace to the integrity of government. To enforce all laws strictly is still Gov. Folk's platform. So long as the old law stands, the citizens of Warrensburg are liable to arrest, but the difficulties of the situation are a strong argument for changing the statute. The Governor's further suggestion that a small State tax on the capital stock of corporations be levied in place of the personal tax, is likely to be favorably received by his commission.

The young District Attorneys militant who have set out either to make the world a better place to live in or to become Governor, "like Folk," should form an association and make John B. Moran of Boston president. As a busy hive of industry, his office is excelled only by the night-and-day bank. His latest feat, the summoning of the entire Massachusetts Legislature to appear before the grand jury to testify that bribery was or was not practised in the defeat of the anti-bucket-shop bill, is characteristic of his genius. Elected to the office in spite of the opposition of practically every organized party, Mr. Moran made his first bid for fame by compelling the proprietors of Boston's best hotels to remove every sash curtain that in any degree impeded the view from the street into the dining-rooms and cafés. When the advertising value of this firm stand for "the equal enforcement of the law" decreased, the District Attorney turned his attention to State Street and big financial game. Lawson found the young prosecutor a credulous listener, and it is due to his initiative that the General Court of Massachusetts is to report, in sections, to the grand jury. We hear that "practically every one at the State House took the whole affair as a huge joke, and hilarity reigned supreme." What saves the General Court from extreme depression—a sense of humor—seems to have been omitted from the District Attorney's make-up, however.

Gov. Cummins of Iowa is making it increasingly plain that he means to become something more than a mere Governor before his political career is ended. To the "Cummins idea," which has "taken" exceptionally well in his State, he now adds the income tax and the popular election of Senators. This is an equipment that is designed not only to land him in the Senate as Allison's successor, but to keep him in the public eye as a Presidential possibility for 1908 or even 1912. It might occur to the ordinary student of the tariff that Gov. Cummins as a revisionist will have his hands full in the Middle West for a long time. Indeed, his present contest for renomination against George D. Perkins, the Sioux City standpatter, leaves him little time for developing other political reforms. But that will be settled shortly, and, in obedience to the resolution of the State Legislature, the restless Governor of ideas will call a convention to consider ways and means of amending

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the Constitution in order to secure the popular election of Senators. The income-tax issue was not raised in the last Legislature, but it is a fine radical thing for a Republican to take up.

The Crapsey trial, which has ended in this clergyman's suspension, was certain to reverberate beyond the denomination immediately affected by it. The issues involved concern all churches, touch all clergymen. They raise the whole question of the attitude of the Church towards modern learning. Wherever clergymen are gathered together the matter comes up, though not often is it discussed with the frankness shown by the speakers at the dinner of the alumni of Union Theological Seminary on Monday evening. Invited to deal with the subject of theological education and the training of the modern minister, President Hyde of Bowdoin College and Dr. Knox of the Seminary went to the heart of the question with a refreshing directness and candor. Their remarks showed how a breath from the Crapsey case is stirring the dry bones everywhere. President Hyde drew with sure hand the picture of the ordinary education of the ordinary clergyman. It is cloistered, narrowing, deadening. Original thinking is discouraged. Free inquiry is frowned upon. The customary methods of testing assertions, by reading, debate, comparison, weighing of evidence, give way to dogmatic teaching on authority which must not be disputed. Occasionally, large natures are able, as Emerson said a man of native force might be, to take these old and musty conventions and use them for rational and moral ends in profitable and even inspiring ways; but the common result is, as President Hyde said, to turn out clergymen who "can comfort a few sisters weaker than themselves, and that is all." The consequence is, he declared, that the fixed gulf before which the religious world stands to-day is more sharply marked than ever before.

There were published in Germany last year the results of an inquiry among educated people who were asked to answer the question, "Has the clergyman any longer an independent significance in the modern enlightened world?" We know this work by Theodor Kappstein only as it is summarized in the Cincinnati *Volksblatt*. Replies were had from many distinguished professors and writers. Their general tenor was very much that of the opinion of Friedrich Dernburg, who said, "Formerly the office made the clergyman, to-day the clergyman makes the office." Some of the scientists, like the Director of the Zoölogical Museum in Berlin, objected strongly to the departure of the clergy from "practical Christianity" to attack the progress of learning. The dramatist Von Wildenbruch wrote that, in his judgment, the clergyman as a mere cut-and-dried professional man had no reason for existing longer, but that there was more need than ever of a true priest.

The International Postal Congress, which has long been perplexed over the demand for an international stamp, has at last voted in favor of a plan by which it will be possible to send return postage with foreign letters. The scheme, proposed by England, and adopted on Thursday by a majority of one, provides for coupons sold in each country at the price of the regular foreign letter stamp, and exchangeable at the destination for the equivalent stamp of that particular country. The initial difficulty has always been that the international rates were not uniform; twopence halfpenny, for instance, not being exactly equal to 5 cents. With a single international stamp, speculators could buy in quantity in a country where this stamp was cheap and sell it in one where it was dear, making a possible profit of a dollar or more on every thousand. Apparently, though the details are not explained in the brief dispatches, the new plan is to issue in this country, say, a special 5-cent stamp for foreign letters to which is attached the return postage coupon. These exchangeable slips, therefore, cannot be obtained except by using an equal number of stamps on outgoing matter, a requirement that would presumably make speculation impossible on any scale large enough to be worth while.

Col. Gädke, the well-known military expert, pays a high tribute, in the Berlin *Tageblatt*, to the French army. "In equipment and military worth" he declares that it "stands high." In some respects, conditions are superior to those across the Rhine; maltreatment of soldiers by officers, for instance, being absolutely unknown. The weak point lies in the frequent lax discipline and lack of loyalty. Gen. André, during his exceptionally long activity as Minister of War, gave up much of his time to efforts to secure a corps of officers devoted to republican principles, but in vain. Many officers are monarchists; and no less powerful is the clerical influence. The want of discipline and obedience was recently exemplified in a manner inconceivable in the German army, when the three oldest officers in succession refused to obey their brigadier-general's order—given in presence of the soldiers—to force entrance into a church. The fact that in this and similar cases the offenders were either exculpated or subjected to a ludicrously mild punishment, could not but foment the spirit of insubordination. Nevertheless, Col. Gädke believes that the ardent patriotism of Frenchmen would minimize the dangers from this source in case of a foreign war.

General strikes break out with startling suddenness in Italy, and testify to the efficient organization of the advanced Socialist party. The latest political strike extended from Milan to Rome, and had the unusual effect of bringing about the wholesale resignation of Socialist Deputies in Parliament. The Government majority—a composite one, to be sure—is not likely to be seriously affected by this move, but the disaffection of the Socialists may cause resignations in the Cabinet. The issue is one on which Baron Sonnino cannot yield. The Socialists protest against the right to suppress industrial rioting by force of arms. They assert the privilege of disorder, and seek to reduce the weapons of constabulary and army to those of moral suasion. Of course, no nation can live long on any such basis, and Sonnino, who stood behind the stern military repression of 1900, the year of the bread riots, is not likely to change his policy now. For several years past, popular sentiment in Italy has upheld all Government measures taken to preserve order. Accordingly, it seems unlikely that the recent strike will have serious political results. Still, it shows a formidable degree of organization among the Italian proletariat.

In the latest appeal to the Hungarian electorate, the Wekerle Government has received a large majority. The Independence party, which is Ministerialist *pro tempore*, secured a little more than half the seats in the Diet. It is, of course, the ruling element of the Government, and the future of Hungarian politics will depend largely upon Francis Kossuth. The election marks the complete disintegration of the old Liberal party, which has long, if only nominally, been in power at Budapest. The Wekerle Ministry is, it will be recalled, by its very constitution one of transition. Its chief business is to pass a univeral-suffrage bill, besides a minimum of routine supply bills. After the election of a new Diet under the liberalized suffrage, a Government will be formed in accordance with the vote, and the longstanding disputes over the army and language questions will be faced anew. As Kossuth put it the other day, the present situation is "a truce, not a peace." It is a decided gain, however, that the Independence party will enter the new Diet in a spirit friendly towards the Emperor. Speculation as to the effect of universal suffrage on the Diet is rather idle. Some observers hold that it will, by enfranchising many of the other races, actually reduce the Magyar element; but, obviously, political and racial lines are by no means identical in a mixed population like that of Hungary.

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THE NECESSARY LAWSUIT.

In his Standard Oil message, the President spoke with some impatience of suits at law as remedies for corporation abuses. "It is impossible," he said, "to work a material improvement in conditions such as above described merely through the instrumentality of a lawsuit." This bespeaks partly a mind which President Harrison described as always wanting the millennium, and wanting it right off; partly that lack of legal training which has so often led Mr. Roosevelt astray; partly, it may be, a lingering resentment at the failure of the Government's Beef Trust prosecution, owing to the perverse unwillingness of Judge Humphrey to agree with the law as laid down by the President.

This attitude has since been thrown into fresh prominence by the Attorney-General's proceeding in court against the so-called Drug Trust. This is a lawsuit. It is but the latest of several similar suits brought by the present Administration. In its name, injunctions have been sought against the Northwestern Paper Trust, the Tobacco Trust, the Elevator Trust; by it suits have been brought against the Sugar Trust and various railways. The famous Northern Securities case, which the President had so much reason to contemplate with satisfaction, was nothing but a lawsuit. Why, then, should he speak of such a legal process as miserably inadequate for the reforms he has in mind? Various reasons suggest themselves. A legal trial is necessarily slow; but the President's habitual prayer is, "Lord, have mercy, and have mercy *quick*." The short way with dissenters from his views is his favored way. Then, too, lawsuits are little spectacular. There is no glitter about men of the robe. Judges are seldom theatric. The opinion of the court is apt to be dull reading, badly fitted for delivery from a stump. And if President Roosevelt may not fairly be called sensational in his methods, he at least is fond of sharp and decisive utterance from somewhere near the centre of the stage. Compared with that, the slow droning of lawyers and judges naturally seems pretty tame.

Yet the Executive, under our Constitution, finds his main duty in enforcing the law; and to enforce the law means the constant bringing of lawsuits. They are not picturesque, but are necessary. There is really no shorter road. The President seems to think that swift and radical action by Congress is preferable to the slow processes of the law. But such action by Congress will itself be the mother of endless lawsuits. Not even a Federal statute can be self-executing, like the decree of a Czar. Every man who has an interest at stake, every corporation, is entitled to come forward and insist that the Congressional enactment, which Mr. Roosevelt appears to regard as a cure-all, be challenged and tested in every possible way in the courts. Its constitutionality may be called in question; its application may be disputed; the true implication of its every phrase and word may be brought up for judicial decision. Trained lawyers may search the statute as with a lighted candle and demand that the courts pronounce upon every defect or loophole. That is what is involved in taking no man's property without due process of law. As a great constitutional muniment of liberty, we all assent to that and admire it. Well, then, we must not rail at the lawsuits which grow out of it.

It is probably the belated perception of these elementary truths which has led Mr. Roosevelt to give, at last, his reluctant assent to the amendment of the Railway-Rate bill so as to safeguard every right of the carriers. Who was the successful instrument of the President's conversion, we need not ask. We presume that, whoever he was, he mixed political with legal arguments. He pointed out to the President, doubtless, that it was rapidly becoming a question whether this is a Republican Administration or not; whether Mr. Roosevelt was really going to set up for himself against the leading Republicans of the Senate, or would conclude to accept what they in their wisdom would give him. It is known that President Roosevelt has expressed a determination to "have no Andy Johnson business" of his own; and his deep desire to keep in line with his party would only need to be skilfully played upon in order to make him drop suddenly his dalliance with Democratic Senators and with the handful of extremist Republicans. But the main thing is that he has finally gone over to the broadest kind of judicial review of the rate-making power of the Interstate Commerce Commission. Every resource of the law—including the enjoining of the Commission, suspension of its rates, or their annulment—is to be left open to the railways. If it be said that this leaves the situation very much what it was before, that is only to state that we had a government by law before, and shall go on having one in the future.

IMMIGRATION AND THE SOUTH.

In many of the Southern States an unprecedented movement for the encouragement of immigration is one of the features of the legislative year now ending; and in most cases there has been an appropriation to employ commissioners and defray expenses. Perhaps the most important effort was that of Virginia, where $10,000 was voted by the Legislature, on the understanding that work should begin at once. In Mississippi, intentions were as good, but the bill was carelessly drafted, and as a result the matter must be laid over for the next Legislature. Several other Southern States have sent representatives to Europe and to the great cities of the North, where the seamy side of the immigrant problem presents itself. Altogether, the South shows signs of general awakening to the possibilities that lie in attracting immigration.

The movement must contend against two obstacles: the prejudice of the South against foreign labor, and of foreign labor against the South. These prejudices are not hard to understand, and they should be easy to dissipate. The conservatism of the old South, which saw in the coming of the aliens the breaking down of many traditions and the end of the easy-going relationship of proprietor and field-hand, has long since given way before the demands of the newer, bigger South. The progressive element is fully aware that a new industrial era has come, and that if the South is to hold its own—to say nothing of making an advance—either in agriculture or in manufactures, it must make a strong bid for that immigration which has so rapidly built up the West. In Mississippi and Louisiana there are still traces of feeling against the Italians—provoked by the unfortunate outbreak in New Orleans some years ago. But that incident will be forgotten, for the Italians are showing themselves to be in the main industrious and law-abiding.

The prejudice on the other side is perhaps more difficult to deal with, for there are very few means of getting at the immigrant and persuading him that the South is the place where he ought to go. For years he has been listening to another gospel. There is truth in the complaint of the South that certain States of the Northwest, in their eagerness to advertise and populate the wheat fields, have sent out circulars which make comparisons unfavorable and unfair to the States below Mason and Dixon's line. These advertisements, together with certain too well-founded complaints about lawlessness and the miscarriage of justice, have helped to deprive of its share that part of the country which most needs the infusion of new blood. Yet the immigrants who have gone to the South have succeeded well. When we remember that the entire peninsula of Italy, excluding the Alps and the Apennines, is but little larger than the State of Georgia, and that it supports, chiefly by agriculture, a population of 36,000,000, we can see why newcomers from the south of Europe, trained to methods of careful and intensive cultivation, should get ahead in a region where the farming methods are among the loosest and most wasteful in the world. Many instances could be given of the achievements of adventurous immigrants who have disregarded all warnings, and have found comforta-

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ble homes, hospitable friends, and a freedom which they could not have hoped for in the over-crowded cities. A colony at Ladson, South Carolina, has found silk-raising profitable. Prosperous Italian and Bohemian truck-farmers are now living along the seaboard from Norfolk to Jacksonville. An experiment in Alabama, where a colony was set at work in the cotton fields, has been wholly successful, and has shown that the cultivation of cotton can be performed by white labor as well as by black. In the South more than one "model" farm, demonstrating the effect of intensive methods and hard work, is in the hands of men who, though industrious and intelligent, have been in this country hardly long enough to make themselves understood. These examples of adaptability, as they become more widely known among immigrants, cannot but have the effect of turning attention to the South.

The importance of immigration to the South can hardly be overestimated. The population in many districts is very sparse, and the opportunities for development of agricultural and mineral resources are boundless. For this work there must be both men and money; but if the South can once turn the tide of immigration, the capital will be forthcoming in abundance. A question often raised is the effect of foreign labor upon the negro. If the South carries out its plan of drawing the best foreign labor, the effect upon the negro should be beneficial. If he is to hold his own in competition, he will be forced to improve himself, and he will be stimulated intellectually and morally. One reason why he is lazy and irresponsible is that he often regards himself as not a direct competitor of the white; and he measures himself by no standard of achievement except that of the shiftless and ignorant of his own race. The coming of the immigrant should open the eyes of his mind and soul. Placed side by side with earnest, steady workmen, he himself should reach a higher degree of skill and trustworthiness.

From every point of view, it is the South's plain duty to itself and to the rest of the country to correct the evil impressions that have gone abroad as to its conditions of life and the opportunities for tranquil, profitable, livelihood. In order to set forth its manifold advantages the South must employ such businesslike methods as have been used in advertising our own Western States and the Canadian Northwest. Keen, alert agents at home and abroad will doubtless obtain desirable settlers in growing numbers. Above all, the South should make good its promises by strictly enforcing law and protecting all its citizens. Each lapse of justice and unpunished mob rule will keep from the South thousands of people whose coming is ardently to be desired. Without law and order the door will stand open in vain.

A TEST OF "CIVICS."

We all know what a vast amount of instruction about government has been given of late years in our public and fitting schools, not to speak of women's clubs. A preparatory school that did not offer courses in "civics" could to-day scarcely hold up its head. "Current events" and "questions of the day" have been among the most popular of subjects. On all sides there has been an effort by teachers to provide a sort of handy-volume *vade-mecum* of citizenship, and to turn out a generation of students well-grounded in the whole duty of an American. Thus was accurate information to lead to reform. It has occurred, however, to a Western college professor to seek to ascertain just how accurate the information is. Prof. W. A. Schaper of the University of Minnesota had reason to doubt the political knowledge of his own students. He subjected them to examination, which they did not pass with honor. Then he extended his inquiries to other institutions. The same questions were put to 350 students in ten universities, four in the East, six in the Middle West. The illuminating results are set forth in Professor Schaper's paper, now reprinted from the Proceedings of the American Political Science Association.

The five simple questions about government related to the method of choosing members of Congress, with their terms of office, qualifications, and compensation; the nature of the Federal courts; the method of amending the Constitution; an outline of county government in the student's own State, and an explanation of the New England plan of township government. An identical test was made in a number of universities, under conditions as nearly equal as possible. The questions were put to "seniors in the courses in engineering, and to sophomores, juniors, and seniors in the academic courses who had taken no college courses in Political Science or American History." Thus the aim was to discover the residuum left over from instruction in civics in preparatory schools, and to enlighten the college professor in regard to the information which he might take it for granted his students had acquired from former teaching and from their own observation. The outcome was astonishing and deplorable. These young Americans, of the average age of 20.6 years, got an average of less than 10 per cent. in the examination. Professor Schaper analyzes the figures variously. One inference which he makes has a bearing upon the theory that we are in danger of being destroyed by the ignorance of our immigrant population.

"It may be an accident, but the college group that counted among its number four of colonial stock, four of German, five of Scandinavian, a Belgian, a Hungarian, a Pole, and thirteen of mixed Swiss, German, English, Scottish, Irish, Scandinavian, and American colonial descent, stood first on average for the five best, and second on general averages. In the little group of five best there appeared one of English-Scotch parentage, one of German, one of German-American, one of Swiss-American, and one of Norwegian parentage."

A few of the more imaginative answers given by these college students may be cited:

"The members of Congress are chosen by use of the Australian ballot system. The term of office of the members of Congress is four years in most all cases."

"If the Constitution of the United States is to be amended, it has to be brought befor the House and voted upon."

"The predominating qualification of a U. S. Senator is to be able to tell funny stories for publication, and go to church regularly. He should also contain a smattering of law."

"They must be 25 yrs. old and have committed no crime of which they have been convicted."

"A Senator must be a resident of the State which chooses him, and an upright citizen." (As an afterthought he crossed out all after the comma.) "He must be of sound mind."

"The Federal Courts were supplied to meet a demand for accessible courts where small cases could be tried without taking them to the higher or Supreme Court."

"The courts of the United States are as follows:
"The Supreme Court.
"The Circuit Court.
"The Criminal Court.
"The Juvenile Court."

A certain discount should doubtless be made from this bad showing. One detects here and there the irrepressible impulse of the student to refuse to take the examination seriously. In some cases, it is not ignorance that is displayed, but levity. Yet "plain ignorance" is revealed in amazing quantity, and reflects seriously upon the teaching in government and history which more than half of these students had regularly had before going to college. But it also reflects seriously upon their own powers of observation and their personal interest. One of the worst papers was handed in by a young man 24 years old, of New England parentage, who had passed through graded schools, had read a daily newspaper for several years, and had voted in two elections. He seemed unable to give even an elementary account of the system of government in his own country.

Such a case suggests the truth which Secretary Taft presumably had in mind when he advised the Yale students to complete their political education by freely consorting with saloonkeepers and others deep in the actual game. It is the concrete which bites deeply into the mind. Book learning is never more barren or fugitive than when it deals with government in an abstract way. The book-theory is, besides, too often wide of the fact. In what text-book could a student learn the real government of New York city by Tammany Hall, or find explained the functions of a Quigg or an Odell? It is contact

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with the living reality which both corrects book-knowledge of politics and makes it more than a dead thing. So it may well be argued from Professor Schaper's showing, not that the teaching of civics should be dropped, but that it should be vitalized. Here, too, abstractions should yield, so far as possible, to examples. The live Congressman, rather than the pale ghost depicted in the Constitution, should be vividly brought before the mind of ingenuous youth; who should be bidden, further, to supplement their books by that sure knowledge of politics which comes only of seeing and handling.

ALLIANCES, SPECIAL AND GENERAL.

When a bank begins to publish gratuitous and frequent evidence of solvency, it is time for the depositors to be on their guard. So the repeated protestations that the Triple Alliance is unimpaired seem excessive and almost suspicious. Count Guicciardini, the Italian Foreign Minister, in a remarkable speech before the Senate, the other day, gave the Triplice a new certificate of health, but advanced a comparatively fresh reason for its validity. All the world knows that Bismarck drew Italy into the alliance by appealing to mistrust of French aggression in Tunis. To-day, the Italian Foreign Office regards the pact with Germany and Austria primarily as a guarantee of the *status quo* in the Balkans. "It protects us," said Count Guicciardini, "against any change without a hearing." He went on to say that, as regards Albania, a special understanding exists with Austria, whereas the friendship with France and England has become a cardinal point of policy, safeguarding as these newer *ententes* do the position of Italy in the Mediterranean. These special agreements, Count Guicciardini maintained, were perfectly compatible with the older obligation to Germany and Austria. To that effect, he cited Chancellor Bülow's statement, made in 1902, that "the good relations of France and Italy are, in my opinion, the complement of the Triple Alliance," and Lord Fitz-Maurice's sensible *mot*, that "the fact of being on good terms with one Power does not necessarily imply being on bad terms with another."

This theory that the more general and comprehensive alliances are compatible with any number of special agreements, well deserves scrutiny. The arguments for the view are by no means immediately convincing. The fact, however, is clear that beside the more general alliance, like the Triplice, the Franco-Russian, and Anglo-Japanese treaties—all of which are based upon somewhat indefinite and remote contingencies—there is an increasing number of special agreements resting upon very definite and practical issues. We need not recall Bismarck's private understanding with St. Petersburg, which set the fashion of a "friendship" superimposed upon an alliance—or secretly undermining it. It is sufficient to say that Austria has special agreements with Russia and Italy as regards Macedonia and Albania. France has, in addition to the Dual Alliance, undertaken especial obligations to Italy, England, and Spain; in short, a nexus of friendly bargains now covers pretty nearly every disputed point in European politics, and the older so-called fundamental groupings of the Powers begin to have the look of retiring into some abstract and unrealized realm.

It is in the nature of the case, perhaps, that the more sweeping and ambitious alliances should have little permanency. Based on national sentiments of a temporary sort, they pledge national policy for a long future. Germany, for example, must to-day be pretty well free of the dread of Russia and France, which was the reason for rallying Italy and Austria to her side. In other words, what began as a measure of Imperial defence persists merely as a matter of national vanity, or as an abstract ideal of a central European tribunal. Similarly, France, since her reconciliation with England and Italy, should have nearly outgrown her fear of Germany. Moreover, it may reasonably be doubted if any member of the three great alliances would be bound by past engagements against its present interests. Can it be doubted that, if France were called upon to fight beside Russia, or even England beside Japan, either ally would construe its duty not by the letter of a treaty, but by its sense of immediate self-interest?

A further reason why the more comprehensive pacts do not promise the "federation of the world," is their moral weakness. They are made in a spirit, not of conciliation, but of potential defiance. When the Kaiser virtually rebuked Italy by praising Austrian action at Algeciras, he showed the old sentiment of exclusiveness. He assumed that the rival or opponent of any member of the alliance could be the friend of no other member. In this sense, one may say that the older treaties, framed with a view to the balance of power, make for peace very imperfectly. Being based on the theory of existing animosities between nations, they give to such hostilities a kind of international warrant. When friendlier feelings come, it is no wonder that the signatory Powers which are accustomed to the older régime of distrust, feel obliged to protest that nothing has changed. When a watcher has to pinch himself to make sure he is awake, the worth of his vigilance is at least questionable.

Against international agreements of a special and limited kind no skepticism need arise. The Anglo-French *entente*, for example, has the moral advantage of dealing with perfectly concrete issues and of seeming to mean no more than it actually does. All treaties that concern trade, fishing rights, boundaries, spheres of influence, and the like have a similar character of sincerity. That they are limited in application is their strength. None goes beyond an immediate point in controversy. Each is an admirable argument for a new agreement when occasion arises. In a sense, we cannot have too many especial agreements. They greatly promote the habit of frank negotiation and frequent arbitration among nations. They mark a stage beyond the arbitrament of arms and the view of world-politics that regards international prejudices as a chief asset. It is a just instinct that sees in these special treaties an impairment of those older pacts which presuppose a European equipoise of battalions and battleships. Should the habit of especial agreements ever became universal, the traditional military alliances would become superfluous.

CARL SCHURZ.

The patriot, orator, journalist, statesman, soldier, reformer, who died in this city on Monday morning, was born March 2, 1829, in the village of Liblar, near Cologne; in 1840 he entered the Catholic Gymnasium of Cologne, and in 1846 proceeded to the University of Bonn with the intention of studying philosophy and history. Like many other ardent and generous-minded young students, he fell under the influence of Professor Johann Gottfried Kinkel, who threw himself unreservedly into the revolutionary movement of 1848, and served as a private among the insurgents in the spring of 1849. Schurz, following the example of his friend and teacher, served as adjutant to Gen. Tiedemann, and, when the latter surrendered the fortress of Rastadt with forty-five hundred revolutionary troops on July 21, 1849, made an almost miraculous escape from it through the sewer connecting with the Rhine, and fled to Switzerland. In the following summer he returned to Berlin, under an assumed name, for the purpose of liberating Kinkel, who had been taken prisoner, tried for treason, and sentenced to imprisonment for life. With the aid of wealthy sympathizers, this daring and romantic project was carried to a successful conclusion in November, 1850, and created a sensation throughout Europe. In fact, a more remarkable instance of self-sacrifice and heroism for friendship's sake has seldom been recorded, and it demonstrated the singular nobility of Schurz's character. Schurz and Kinkel escaped on a Mecklenburg vessel to Leith in Scotland.

Schurz spent about two years in London and Paris, supporting himself by giving music lessons and by acting as correspondent of German newspapers. In July, 1852, he married Margaret Meyer, the daughter of a well-known Hamburg merchant. The match was a romantic one, the acquaintance

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being traceable to the fame of Schurz's exploit in liberating Kinkel, and was the beginning of a long and happy union, broken only by the death of the wife in March, 1876. In September, 1852, Schurz crossed the ocean and took up his abode in Philadelphia, where he remained for three years, removing then to Watertown, Wis. He attached himself at once to the newly formed Republican party, and in the following year, 1856, made German speeches which contributed so materially to carrying Wisconsin for Frémont by a majority of more than 13,000 votes that in 1857, although he had but just become a citizen, he was nominated Republican candidate for lieutenant-governor, and came within one hundred and seven votes of an election. Two years later he was offered the same nomination and declined it. His first English speech, made in 1858, during the senatorial contest in Illinois between Abraham Lincoln and Stephen A. Douglas, attracted general attention, and was widely circulated under the title of "The Irrepressible Conflict."

In the following year he began the practice of the law in Milwaukee. The National Republican Convention of May, 1860, which he attended as chairman of the Wisconsin delegation, upon his motion incorporated in the fourteenth paragraph of the party platform a declaration unequivocally pledging the Republican party against all legislation by which the existing political rights of immigrants could be impaired or abridged. Moreover, he supported George William Curtis in his successful appeal for the insertion in the platform of the sentiments of the Declaration of Independence, which had been denied to Mr. Giddings. Although he steadily cast the vote of his whole delegation for William H. Seward, Schurz was appointed a member of the committee to notify Lincoln of his nomination; a member of the National Republican Committee, consisting of one representative from each State; and also a member of the Executive Committee, which then consisted of only seven members. During the ensuing canvass he made many brilliant speeches in German and in English, which were an important factor in bringing about the election of Lincoln, who, after his inauguration, recognized the valuable services of Schurz by appointing him United States Minister to Spain. Schurz presented his credentials to Queen Isabella on July 16, 1861, but in December resigned his post, and, after a brief visit to his native land, returned to his adopted country in January, 1862, to take service in the Union army.

He was commissioned brigadier-general in April, and on June 17 took command of a division in the corps of Gen. Franz Sigel, participating in the second battle of Bull Run (August 29 and 30). He was appointed major-general on March 14, 1863, and on May 2 commanded a division of Gen. Oliver O. Howard's Eleventh Army Corps, at the battle of Chancellorsville. With the same corps he participated in the battles of Gettysburg and Chattanooga, and served under Sherman in the Georgia campaigns. The surrender of Gen. Johnston to Gen. Sherman on April 26, 1865, terminated the war; and Schurz, having obtained leave of absence, proceeded at once to Washington and resigned his commission as general. His resignation was filed May 5, and was the first one received by the War Department, with the sole exception of Gen. Sigel's, which was filed May 4.

In the summer of 1865 Schurz was commissioned by President Johnson to make a tour of the Southern States and prepare a report on their condition and the state of public sentiment. He made a careful and conscientious study of the subject, and embodied the result of his investigations in a candid and judicial-minded report, in which he recommended that, before readmitting the rebellious States to full political rights, a Congressional Committee be sent there to make a thorough survey of the ground and suggest appropriate legislation. In 1866, he removed to Michigan and became editor of the Detroit *Post;* in 1867, to St. Louis to become editor and, with Emil Pretorius, joint proprietor of the *Westliche Post.* Even during the war, and while in active service in the field, Schurz had not intermitted his activity as a political orator, but had occasionally taken leave of absence when it seemed necessary to rouse public sentiment to support the Administration, and in 1864 had made some notable speeches in the second Lincoln canvass. As a matter of course he was one of the most effective speakers in the campaign of 1868, which resulted in the first election of Grant. On January 19, 1869, the Legislature of Missouri elected him Senator, and he took his seat at the special session beginning March 4, being the first German-born citizen who had ever been a member of the upper house of Congress.

The career of Carl Schurz in the Senate would have been sufficiently remarkable if regarded merely as a demonstration of his great gifts as a parliamentary orator and of his readiness as a debater. The course of events has taken his part in nearly all the controversies which put him at odds with his party in the Senate. He was in advance of public sentiment, not so much by reason of any superior foresight or political sagacity, as because of his fidelity to his ideals, and his conviction that, in the long run, truth was bound to prevail. He was the original Independent in politics, and the whole political faith of the Independent can be educed from his utterances. He was a warm advocate of civil-service reform, of tariff-reform, of currency reform, at a time when the friends of any kind of reform were few and far between, and had nothing to expect from either party but obloquy and sneers. Perhaps the greatest practical service he rendered at this time was by his unwavering advocacy of correct principles on the currency question. He was among the few public men who never made any concession on this point to ignorant public clamor, and his mastery of the subject was equal to the honesty and courage with which he stood for the right. The two speeches against inflation and in favor of a return to specie payments which he made in the Senate on January 14 and February 24, 1874, were models of sound doctrine. Of the second of them, Prof. Bonamy Price of Oxford said that it was the ablest speech ever made on banking in any parliament, that its range and solidity were wonderful, and that it offered a body of detailed doctrine which almost throughout will bear the test of the closest examination.

A complimentary dinner was given to Schurz on April 27, 1875, to mark the regret which honest men of all parties felt at his retirement from the Senate, failing a reëlection—at his being (in the words of one of them) "exiled from one party by his independence and principles, and repelled by the other apparently because it is too ignorant to recognize his value in public life." Banqueted a few weeks later in Berlin, a more signal vindication awaited him on his return from Europe. Although he had broken with and defied the Republican party by taking sides against it in the Louisiana question, in the matter of the Ku-Klux laws, in advocating a general amnesty; although he had opposed the Administration in the San Domingo discussion, in the debates on the sale of arms to France and on abuses in the New York Custom House; although he had originated the Liberal Republican movement in Missouri in 1870, and had thereby given the first impetus to the current of independence in politics which afterwards swept the country; although he had presided over the Liberal convention of May, 1872, which nominated Horace Greeley for the Presidency, and had advocated (with much reluctance, it is true) the election of Greeley; although he had done all these things, and many others that equally demonstrated how little amenable he was to the ordinary canons of party discipline, and how much he placed the cause above the party—no sooner, nevertheless, had he returned home than he was appealed to by the Ohio Republican Committee to stump that State in favor of Hayes and honest money, as against Allen and inflation. Within a week he was in harness, and resumed with all his wonted boldness and brilliancy the good fight against financial folly, quackery, and knavishness which he had fought in the Senate, and which he was to fight over again for many years to come. His appointment by Hayes to the Secretaryship of the Interior was only a just recognition of the importance of his services, and at the same time a partial redemption of the pledge, if a pledge there was, in regard to civil-service reform, of which it was on all sides admitted that Schurz was a sincere and ardent advocate. So well was this understood by the enemies of the reform that, while his nomination was pending, they spread a report that his confirmation would be opposed by some Republicans from a "dispassionate belief" that he did not possess business experience and administrative ability enough for the proper discharge of the multifarious duties of the office.

The duties of the office were, indeed, multifarious, but Schurz was soon to convince the country that an idealist can be a very practical man in any business which is compatible with honesty, industry, intelligence, and courage. He was confirmed on March 11, and before a week had expired he assured the clerks that no removals would be made except for cause, unless the force had to be reduced, in which case the least competent would be removed; that no promotions would be made except for merit; and that, as there were no vacancies, no recommendations to office would be entertained. This was not empty declamation, for Schurz did not even bring a new private secretary with him. On April 6 he promulgated an order providing for the investigation and practical determination of questions connected with appointments, removals, and promotions by means of a

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board of inquiry composed of three clerks of the highest class; and his subsequent actions demonstrated that there was no sham about this measure, but that it was meant in sober earnest. Clerical reform, however, was but a small part of his task. He found the service in a deplorable condition, particularly the Indian Bureau. The Secretary of the Interior, and even the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, were kept in ignorance of what was going on, and contractors and Indian agents were allowed full swing. As fast as Schurz could fasten the responsibility for wrong-doing or negligence or even mere carelessness, he made changes and removals right and left, regardless, as he had ever been, of the enemies he made. His efforts to check the timber thieves brought him into conflict with powerful corporations and with his old Republican antagonists in the Senate, while his intelligent and well-considered Indian policy was attacked not only by a noisy company of traders who had a vested interest in corruption, but by army officers on the one hand, and by well-meaning, sentimental philanthropists on the other. All of these foes he faced undismayed, and did not allow clamor or vituperation to swerve him from what he considered the straight path of duty. He put an end to the swindling of Indians by agents who were appointed to protect them, and in four years gave the wards of the nation a better start towards civilization than they had ever had before. In other departments he displayed the same capacity for practical business.

Returning to private life when his term of office had expired, and making his home in New York, Schurz became one of the editors of the *Evening Post*, when that journal changed ownership in July, 1881, and retained the position until December 9, 1883. In 1884 he took a prominent part in the independent movement which was called into being as a revolt against tendencies in the Republican party that represented the antipodes of everything he stood for. He had himself helped materially by example and by precept to create the public feeling which made such a movement possible, and he contributed no less to its culmination in the election of Grover Cleveland, with whom he had, indeed, much in common. The leisure afforded him by his release from public duties he employed to good purpose in writing his 'Life of Henry Clay,' which appeared in 1887, and at once secured him a high rank as a man of letters. Repeatedly chosen president of the National Civil Service Reform Association, his speeches and activities in that behalf were notable. In the elections of 1888 and 1892 he again effectively supported Cleveland, although in the latter year his health did not permit him to take as active a part as he had been accustomed to do. His latest literary effort was devoted to his autobiography, now in course of publication.

Mr. Bryce has expressed surprise at the want of influence upon American politics of the great German infusion, and it is certain that no one of the refugees of '48 attained anything like the distinction of Carl Schurz, or had either so conspicuous or so happy a share in repaying his debt to his adopted country. As a whole, it may be said of the Germans as of the Irish that, deceived by the name of "Democracy," they cast their weight—at least during the years of moral agitation—against the anti-slavery party. In this particular Schurz shines by contrast, since he at once saw things as they were, and divined the essential unity between the Slave Power and the despots of the Old World. He differed again from many of his countrymen in making a complete surrender to his new nationality, desiring and aiming to be only a high-minded American citizen. Unlike his noble compatriot, Friedrich Kapp, he was not tempted by the conquest of German unity to return to his Fatherland. In the end, he came to *think* in English rather than in German, though both languages were constantly on his lips. The late Professor Price of Columbia—the most competent of judges—once said that Schurz's mastery of English was the most astonishing intellectual feat that he had ever known. It was not simply that this German had learned to speak English without mistake or accent, nor that he had acquired a rich and varied vocabulary. The amazing thing was that he appeared to have penetrated the very spirit of the alien speech. Its idioms seemed native to him. Among its living growths he moved with ease and certainty. His crisp pronunciation, his flexible handling of phrase and instinctive building up of sentence and climax, made listening to him a blending of delight and wonder. We hear frequent boasts of bi-lingual achievements, but they relate ordinarily to the restricted speech of travel or social intercourse or diplomacy. Schurz could in either tongue be playful or powerfully argue, soar or thunder, and do it with the facility and grace of one to the vernacular born. It was, however, the moral force residing in the man that set him apart in strength. His eloquence was of the kind that is a virtue. His rare intellectual gifts, his ready bonhomie, his power as an orator, might all have gone for naught had they not clothed a conscientious judgment and inner purpose which nothing could shake. This, after all, was the main theatre of Schurz's idealism. He early formed noble political conceptions, and clung to them through evil as through good report. The tasks which he had willed in hours of insight, he fulfilled through hours of gloom.

In the multifariousness of his talent and his experiences in public and in private life, it was not to be expected that he should be equally surpassing. His military career was certainly less brilliant, though not less creditable, than his civilian. As a journalist, too, he was less successful than as an orator, and, in fact, the world has seldom seen these two functions combined (in the first order) in the same person. The speaker's rhetoric is opposed to the directness and terseness demanded of the daily writer for the press, and as a speaker it is to be observed that Schurz was accustomed to elaborate his weightier deliverances by a careful preparation in his closet. The journalist has not time for this, and pays the penalty in an ephemeral fame.

It would be unjust to close this imperfect appreciation without a word as to Carl Schurz's private character, which was both pure and amiable in a singular degree. He was very companionable, very warm and kindhearted, most affectionate in his family relations; passionately fond of music; absolutely simple and unaffected in his manner, and happy to escape from the observation of the world and the exactions of society to be at home with his books and engaged in literary pursuits. Like Lowell and like Curtis, he learned that the possession of these virtues, superadded to abundant examples of public spirit, patriotism, and self-abnegation, was no security against the most vulgar and odious aspersions on the part of his political adversaries. Yet the fullest appreciation came, too.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

LONDON, May, 1906.

The Academy of late has been complimented on the judgment displayed in its elections. Men have been found worthy of admission within the Academic fold for their distinction not as good fellows, not even as billiard players, but actually as artists. Among Academicians and Associates there is now a fair sprinkling of names of painters and sculptors, engravers and architects, who are doing some of the best work done to-day in England. And yet the extraordinary thing is that the Academy's summer exhibition remains what it has always been within my memory—and this means almost a quarter of a century. It shows absolutely no sign of improvement in the quality of the work, nor in the manner of exhibiting it. In fact, I should be inclined to say the exhibition just opened is the worst I have seen for years, had I not been saying the same thing regularly summer after summer. With the number of big shows given nowadays, I know it is impossible to fill each as full as it will hold with fine or even intelligent work—there are not enough fine or intelligent artists to supply it. But that is no reason why the Academy should reject, or discourage, or sky the most distinguished outsiders to make room for, or give prominence to, the chance dauber and amateur. Nor is there any obligation to fill the Academy as full as it can hold, especially as everywhere on the Continent, and in such London exhibitions as the International, harmonious spacing, appropriate hanging, and decorative grouping are considered indispensable. But the Academy goes on, scrupulously covering every inch of its walls, piling pictures one above another to the ceiling—good, bad, and indifferent jumbled together anyhow, so long as they fit in and the most conspicuous places are saved out of the chaos for the performances of Academicians and Associates. The Academy is really a monument to the indolent obstinacy that in Britain passes for conservatism.

If the Academy continues to repeat itself with such persistency, it is impossible to write of it without repetition. Again this year, as for several years past, Mr. Sargent, by sheer physical strength and downright energy, towers above the large company of timid and anæmic portrait painters. I have seen far stronger work from him. But then what are the other portraits? A wooden figure in costly laces and costlier jewels, sitting against evidently as costly a background, with no difference of texture suggested, colorless, without atmosphere—catalogued as "The Duchess of Northumberland," by Sir Edward Poynter; another figure that might pass for a dressmaker's manikin, draped in rose-tinted satins, propped against a

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stage-property magnolia tree—entered as "The Duchess of Westminster," by Mr. Frank Dicksee; the usual assortment of Herkomers, Oulesses, Solomons, and the usual royal effigies; rather insignificant examples of M. Carolus-Duran and M. Blanche, who, you might fancy, are disheartened by finding themselves in Academic company; an excellent portrait of Mr. W. T. Richards by Mr. J. McLure Hamilton, placed where it can offend no Academician by its excellence; a well-thought-out decorative arrangement of a lady in blue by Mr. George Henry; a not remarkable family group, by Mr. J. J. Shannon; a straightforward, unaffected portrait of "The Lord Bishop of Salisbury," by Sir George Reid; a sudden eruption of children on horseback and ladies in inappropriate garments, wandering through romantic landscapes, that would never have been painted but for the success of the late Charles Furse, who started the fashion—and I remember few others. There is, therefore, not much, it will be seen, to compete with the work of a painter like Mr. Sargent, who is no more afraid of a large canvas than he is of diligent application.

His most important picture, either at the Academy or at the New Gallery, is the huge presentation group of Professors William Welch, William S. Halstead, William Osler, and Howard A. Kelly, of the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore. I do not know whether the picture has been already exhibited in America or whether it was designed for a special space in a special room or hall, where it may look better than in its present position at Burlington House. To me, it is a disappointment. The subject gave Mr. Sargent something of the chance Rembrandt had with the Syndics, and Franz Hals with the Regents, and I do not think he has taken advantage of it. Nothing could be simpler than Rembrandt's grouping, and yet there is not one of the Syndics who does not belong to the group, is not a part of it. But I cannot help feeling that each of Mr. Sargent's four figures would be more effective as a separate portrait. There is observation in the four heads, good, sound study of character; the official robes, so much more pictorial than plain coat and trousers, are put in with that full sweep of the brush Mr. Sargent delights in. But, as so often in Mr. Sargent's groups, the arrangement is haphazard; unity is destroyed by the way the standing figure toward the centre is enveloped, lost in atmosphere, while the head of the seated figure immediately in front so lacks this envelope that it fairly jumps at you from the canvas. It is all you see at first; it monopolizes the interest which, in character, the others share quite equally. Nor is the background very successful. It is dark, vague, dingy, spacious, out of proportion to the group. When the picture finally reaches Baltimore, as I suppose it is destined to, the whole effect may be so different that I hesitate to say more about it. It is Mr. Sargent's most ambitious exhibit this year.

He has also at the Academy a portrait of Lord Roberts, in which the interest is concentrated on the uniform and the countless decorations; another, of "The Hon. Mrs. Frederick Guest," in which he has allowed himself the rare pleasure of rendering personal beauty and feminine grace; a third, not very striking one way or the other. For the most sympathetic presentment of character, you must go to the New Gallery, where, in a small sketch of "Padre Albera"—whoever the Padre may be—Mr. Sargent reveals unusual tenderness and charm. Two or three other sketches here and one at the Academy are his record of a recent journey in the East; brilliant notes of hot, blazing sunshine, so true, so suggestive, that one wishes Mr. Sargent would devote to landscape some of the time he gives to people who evidently do not appeal to him or interest him in the least. Surely, he has arrived at the moment in his career when he could permit himself this luxury.

Of the sort of pictures that used to be expected of Academicians—subject pictures, historic pictures, heroic pictures, allegoric pictures, call them what you will—the examples are few, and of these few only one or two are above the average. One of the exceptions is "A Venetian Funeral," by Mr. Frank Brangwyn, who has just been made an Associate. He is an artist of distinct individuality. He has done good work, both as illustrator and as decorator. But as painter he has reached a point where, if he does not take care, he may fall a victim to his mannerisms—to his convention—as have already so many of the Glasgow school. He can no longer see nature except through the formula he has invented for himself. That "A Venetian Funeral" is a most picturesque motive, any one who has been to Venice knows. Mr. Brangwyn, however, has made of it only an excuse for the mosaic of paint he now produces with every picture. The boat in the foreground, the men in it bearing unlit candles, the flowers at their feet—all in shadow not quite accounted for—the figures in the distant boats that fill the hot background, are so many *tesseræ* in this mosaic. It takes several minutes to untangle, to puzzle out the design. It is the same with his "Wine Shop" at the New Gallery, in which there is nothing in the treatment to distinguish the figures from the objects of still life that surround them. It is the same, I might say, with his big etching of "Santa Maria della Salute," a confusion of shipping in the foreground that no amount of study has so far made clear to me. However, Mr. Brangwyn has an individual way of using his eyes; he may still triumph over his formula, and there is no other large subject-picture at the Academy to be mentioned with his, except, perhaps, Mr. Abbey's "Columbus in the New World."

I say this, though I cannot deny to myself that, if it were not for Mr. Abbey's name in the catalogue, I probably should have turned from the picture with no desire to come back to it, so hot and garish is it in color, so discordant in design. He has chosen the moment of landing, and Columbus (presumably) kneels in the foreground, where it is some little while before you discover him, so dazzled are your eyes by the flight of violently pink flamingoes, or herons, for I am not ornithologist enough to know just what, across the staring blue sky, and by the banners his followers hold aloft, and by the elaborate vestments in which the priests who wear them are quite lost. Nothing really explains itself, but least of all the birds, by whose astonished flight—that is not a flight at all, for there is no movement—Mr. Abbey probably meant to symbolize the newness of the New World to man, though the symbol in paint resolves itself into no more than an unpleasant experiment in color and decoration. By giving this picture the principal centre in the principal gallery—the centre that used to be occupied by Leighton—Academicians, no doubt, have wished to express their appreciation of Mr. Abbey. Like Mr. Sargent, he comes by his prominence without much trouble. Who is there to dispute it with him? No one but Sir Alma-Tadema, with the old marble seat and the old figures in the old classic draperies, against the old background; or Mr. Waterhouse, with his more substantial versions of Burne-Jones's maidens, this year bearing water-jars and called "The Danaides"; or the various younger men who are struggling by Academic means or by imitation of Mr. Abbey himself for Academic recognition.

The landscapes compel the same repetition as the portraits in any attempt to write about them. Those that have distinction or merit come from the same men who have contributed the only landscapes of importance for some years past. Again, as so often before, one passes the perfunctory Academic machine, the photographic record that a good photograph could beat all to pieces, to come with delight, with a sense of life and freshness and charm, to a little canvas by Mr. George Clausen, in which the sunshine really falls in pale green light through an open door into the deep shadows of the barn, or where one looks, with the laborer at rest, across miles and miles of low rolling country lying in sunshine and shadow, or where one sees the morning open in golden brilliance over all the white, frost-laden countryside. The problem of light and air absorbs Mr. Clausen, and the beauty of the simple pastoral or agricultural landscape. He is not concerned with the dignity or tragedy of labor as Millet—in a way his master—was; for him, the peasant is but a part of the picture, no more important than the trees, or the hayricks, or the clouds sweeping the heavens above, or the barn's low eaves and dim corners. And every year, it seems to me, he comes nearer the successful solving of this problem. I remember, not so long since, when his haymakers or reapers stood out in strong relief against the landscape, distinct and separate from it; now, they take their place in it, belong to it, are inseparable from it, entirely contained within the atmospheric envelope. And I know of no painter in England to-day who can give so well the feeling and beauty of great space, its repose and impressiveness.

His three landscapes are small and simple, but no others in the collection can be compared with them. Mr. La Thangue, whose bold, uncompromising studies of sunlight have usually, by sheer brutality of realism, compelled one to look at them, seems unable to carry this realism further except by forcing effects already forced further, in their strict adherence to nature, than art can justify. One of his pictures, "Carting Bracken," shows such zeal for the least important facts that you would think any minute the woman behind the heavily-laden cart and the boy in front must push and pull it right out of the picture. Like Mr. Brangwyn, Mr.

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La Thangue is letting his mannerisms get the better of him. Here and there, a broad, quiet sweep of brown common by Mr. Aumonier, or a little Yorkshire moorland village in its sombre setting by Mr. James Henry, or a delicate impression of "Washing Day" in the open air by Mr. Edward Stott, another of the new Associates, may catch the eye and bring it an interval of rest and pleasure in the midst of the acres of discord and restlessness. But there is nothing of great note. Mr. East continues his pursuit of the composition earlier generations of painters thought so necessary in a landscape, and one continues to be grateful, even if in the pursuit so many no less essential qualities seem to elude him. There is a characteristic rendering of the royal palace at Copenhagen by M. Thaulow, who is another artist, however, threatened by too close cultivation of one and the same formula.

In the Black-and-White Room, neither the two Associate engravers, Mr. Strang and Mr. Short, nor the presence of Mr. Brangwyn with his big plate of the Salute, can do more than emphasize the general mediocrity and dulness. It is unpardonable, after the International has proved how interesting and splendid a collection of prints and drawings filling a large gallery can be made, that the Academy cannot succeed in filling one small room with good work. In the Architectural Room, attention is attracted to one or two schemes for the "improvement" of London that County Councillors and building speculators and Queen Victoria Memorials are rapidly "improving" out of existence; an entirely different and brand-new London rising from the ruins. When the symmetry of Regent Quadrant was deliberately sacrificed for the sake of still another huge hotel, an outcry was heard from certain quarters, because the Quadrant is one of the few streets in London with any pretension to architectural dignity and design. Recently, it was explained that no great harm would be done because Mr. Norman Shaw was to provide the plans for the Regent Street façade of the hotel, and the old lines—or rather curves—were to be adhered to. Mr. Shaw's elevations and drawings are now exhibited, and they provide not merely for the hotel façade, but for the entire Quadrant, which, as far as I can find out, there is no immediate idea of pulling down. In the drawing, Mr. Shaw's new street seems a little heavy, a little severe, and in any case it will not be the Quadrant in harmony with the period whose name it bears. Another plan is for a County Council Hall built on a bridge across the river. As I believe it has been definitely decided to build this Hall on the southern side of the river between Hungerford and Westminster Bridges, one can afford to look at the new scheme with no fear for the future of the river, which, as it flows through London, is without a rival in its pictorial beauty.

Little need be said about the sculpture. There is nothing even in the way of sensation, like Mr. Thomas's "Lycidas" at the New Gallery last year. In the dispiriting row of busts, in bronze and marble, Mr. Gilbert's "Francis Petrus Paulus, pictor" has the distinction of life and vigor and character. There is life, too, in his sketch model for a proposed war memorial that has as subject "St. George and the Dragon, Victory Leading"; too much life really, for, while the small model, with its amusing use of color, is delightful, you feel that the swirls of the saint's ribbon-like drapery and the long lines made by the widespread wings of Victory and the dragon would, when carried out on a large scale, become unbearably restless in effect and confused in outline. Beyond these things, however, I recall no sculptures of sufficient importance for mention. Mr. Swan has a small group of "Polar Bears," in which so much is left to suggestion that you have to examine it very minutely before you make out anything save the lapis-lazuli base, an inchoate lump of silver, and a square of crystal above. Sir William Richmond sends the model for his monument to Mr. and Mrs. Gladstone, to be placed in Hawarden Church; it makes one wonder what Mr. Gladstone ever did to deserve a memorial that, in the model at least, looks like a modern travesty of the beautiful old tombs whereon husband and wife lie side by side.

If I have not written of the New Gallery, except to refer to one or two pictures, it is because the exhibition there has become more than ever the merest annex to the Royal Acadmy. Burne-Jones has gone, only one or two of his followers linger. No special school, no special movement, no special artist, is represented. There does not seem any good reason why such an exhibition should be held.

N. N.

AUSTRALIAN LAND SCANDALS.

SYDNEY, April 9, 1906.

A people, like a family, ought to wash its dirty linen indoors, as the Catholic Church invariably does; and if the scandals that have lately made the Lands Office of New South Wales a hissing and a reproach throughout the Empire had been only scandals, no word should be written about them here. The actors and the parts they played in this particular phase of the human comedy were all alike too Lilliputian to be worthy of description, or even of censure; but they have a far-reaching significance. It was not only a State department that was on its trial before the royal commissioner appointed to investigate them: it was the ethics of State action in such a sphere and the possibility of an equitable administration of public lands that were in question.

More than thirty years ago, on the way to a racquet court in the north of London, the writer took the liberty of asking Herbert Spencer whether he still adhered to the view that the land of a country should be nationalized. All of his answer that remains in memory is the word, "Eventually." The reply was enigmatical, but the impression left was that he had abandoned the strong ground taken up in 'Social Statics.' He was, at all events, already wavering; a few years later he had ceased to waver. In 1880 Henry George published his epoch-making book, and thus precipitated a development in the mind of "our great philosopher" that might otherwise have been delayed. The reformer founded his propaganda in good part on the memorable chapter on "The Right to the Use of the Earth," and claimed the English philosopher as his ally. Spencer could refuse the challenge only by accepting the affiliation, and he went out of his way to denounce the reasoning in 'Progress and Poverty' as "a tissue of sophistry and contradictions." George was as painfully astonished as the advocates of female suffrage to whom, in 1870 or 1871, Spencer refused leave to issue as a pamphlet the chapter from the same early work on "The Rights of Women." The female-suffragists maintained a dignified silence when they might have branded his apostasy, but Henry George was too much of an enthusiast to lie down under an authoritative disavowal that was also a formidable attack. His 'Perplexed Philosopher' left a wound that long rankled in Spencer's mind, and it gave rise to the only embittered chapter in his bulky 'Autobiography.' George's insinuation that he recanted his belief in the nationalization of the land from interested motives—barbed with a classical quotation from Browning that was still more ludicrously inapplicable to Spencer than it had been to Wordsworth—was as pointless as the accusation of mercenariness made against him by the Positivist chief in England, as it had previously (and far more gently) been made by Renan against Strauss. From Diogenes and Stilpo onwards, philosophers have an honorable record for their political independence, and Spencer stands high in the category of those who have renounced nearly all the things that most men prize. The explanation of his change of opinion is simplicity itself. His own deepest convictions, reinforced by all that he had known of the working of political institutions, led him to conclude that the land of a country could not be acquired and administered by the State without chronic inefficiency and ruinous loss. He would have rejoiced to find his belief confirmed by the ugliest exposure of any public department that has been made in Australia.

The Victorian railways department and the New South Wales lands department have long been promenaded in books on Australia as notorious examples of governmental corruption. A day of reckoning came for the Victorian railways three or four years ago with the advent of the reform ministry that swept them clean. A day of reckoning has now come for the Lands Office of New South Wales. It came by a kind of accident. A suit brought by some graziers (the term that has superseded "squatter" as a name for pastoralists who depasture large flocks of sheep on Crown or other lands) to recover a sum of money paid by them to land agents who undertook, and failed, to negotiate an alteration in the terms on which certain lands were leased by them from the Crown, opened a glimpse of a possible Inferno beneath the smooth surface of the Lands Office that sent a shudder through the community. Another transaction, of a different sort, contributed the additional dynamite needed to blow up the department. The new Minister for Lands, pursuing the policy initiated by New Zealand of providing lands for settlers by buying back the large estates owned for the most part by companies, and breaking them up into moderate-sized farms, purchased a tract known as the Myall Creek Estate. An ex-Premier at once denounced the purchase as having been made on extravagant terms. Uneasiness spread, and the public grew clamorous for an inquiry. A sanguine interviewer bearded the Minister for Lands and asked

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him if a royal commission would be appointed to inquire into the purchase and into the other questionable transactions that had come to light. Aping the manners of Crispi, who coldly told a pressman that the Italian Government did not desire the support of the press, the Minister replied that he was unaware of anything in the Lands Office that needed to be inquired into. We are reminded of Mr. Hammond, once Permanent Under-Secretary at the Foreign Office, who informed Lord Granville, when that nobleman became Foreign Minister, that in his long experience he had never known the political horizon of Europe to be so unclouded. A few months later the dream of the official optimist was rudely shattered by the cannon thunder of the Franco-German war; and the very next day our colonial Doctor Pangloss was promptly brought to his senses. In the morning an influential journal published a trenchant article imperiously calling for the issue of a royal commission. That very day the Cabinet met, and, in a manner unprecedented in the history of parliamentary government, decided, at the instance of a strong-willed Premier, to appoint a judge of the Supreme Court as a royal commission to inquire into the purchase of the Myall Creek Estate and the fees paid to land agents. The decision was a triumph for the Australian press, which is modelled on the English press and is worthy of its exemplar.

Then began the sittings of a commission that has broken the record for length, having sat for nearly a year. Next was seen the strange spectacle of men of the highest political rank being examined and cross-examined like compromised witnesses in a trial for felony. Premiers and ex-premiers, ministers and ex-ministers, legislators, under-secretaries and heads of sub-departments, land agents, landowners, and squatters followed one another in what seemed likely to prove an interminable procession. The legislative rack and the judicial thumbscrew were copiously applied. First one and then another special statute were enacted by the Legislature to arm the commission with fresh powers. Leading counsel were engaged to extract evidence from reluctant witnesses. Officers of the incriminated department offered to make revelations, provided they were guaranteed against injurious consequences, and a bill of indemnity was passed to protect them. The Commissioner was pressed to extend the inquiry into past years and unearth more distant scandals. Thus expanded, the inquest would have been endless. "It is in working within limits," says Goethe, "that the master comes out"; and the Commissioner decided to confine his investigation to the previous lustrum.

It yielded fruit enough—Dead Sea fruit. First, he had to ascertain what foundation there was for the accusations of corruption made in connection with the purchase of the Myall Creek Estate. It is characteristic of the political condition of the mother colony that the very first repurchase of private lands by the State should have sprouted a thicket of scandals. It was openly charged against the present Minister for Lands that he had received a large sum in order to purchase the estate at about £15,000 in excess of its market price. No evidence was adduced in support of the charge of bribery, but it is admitted that the amount paid was excessive, and it was proved that a well-known political land agent received £6,000 from the owners for negotiating the purchase on terms favorable to them. Had the transaction been equitable, his intervention would not have been needed. He was, in fact, bribed to defraud the State, which paid both the bribe and the excess of the purchase money. The well-meaning Minister may be acquitted of dishonesty; he cannot be acquitted of incapacity. The British, and sometimes the more privileged Australian, workman is made to pay for his breakages; the minister who lets himself be duped by a scallawag should be asked to compensate the State for the sum it has lost through his error of judgment or his lack of perspicacity.

A German scholar, Nasse, was perhaps the first to show that there was in Tudor England, in consequence of the humidity of the climate, a constant tendency for the cultivation of the soil to revert from agriculture to pasture. The climate of Australia is still drier than that of England is moist, but the tussle between pasture and agriculture is as keen as ever. The pastoralist strives to keep as much land as possible under grass, and the agriculturist struggles to bring even more of it under crop. That is the key to a large class of transactions investigated by the Commissioner. It was discovered that, a suitable inducement being offered, the Lands Office was willing to convert settlement leases of State lands into pastoral or improvement leases. As the holder of a settlement lease, the farmer pays a liberal rent; as the holder of an improvement lease for twenty-eight years, the pastoralist is bound to improve the land to the value of 4*s.* 6*d.* per acre, while he pays a nominal rental of, at most, a few pence per acre. How low that rental may sink will appear from a single fact. Sir Samuel McCaughey is one of Australia's territorial princes. Besides a lordly demesne of his own, he leases from the State an extensive tract of 110,000 acres, for which he pays the truly "ridiculous sum" of £180 yearly, or a good deal less than a halfpenny an acre. No wonder that settlement leaseholders were eager to undergo a change of heart and get converted into improvement leaseholders. It could not be done offhand. Machinery had to be set in motion, and ministers and under-secretaries manipulated. There are three or four distinct factions in the Lands Office, said a high authority, and whenever one of them sets itself to do something, the other two or three combine to thwart it. The authority cited—the agent who negotiated the Myall Creek purchase—proved to be master of the situation. He alone could thread his way through the labyrinth of the land laws. What was his Ariadne's clue? Knowledge of men and power of managing them. A grazier came from the country to get his lease converted. Theseus took him to the Legislature and there showed the wondering squatter how such august beings as legislators could be twirled round the finger. Another, who had long been vainly endeavoring to change his tenure, he took to the Lands Office, where he interviewed the minister, and "in five minutes" the business was settled. What instruments did he use? Primarily, the vulgarest of all—hard cash; for he would accept no tale-telling check, and give no compromising receipts. About £60,000 in all was sworn to as having been paid to him and other land agents, but those who instigated the inquiry have estimated that as much as £250,000 was thus levied by the fraternity, and public lands to the value of two millions sterling thus temporarily or permanently lost to the State. So ingrained was the general belief that nothing whatever—even things of unquestioned right—could be passed through the Lands Office otherwise than by corrupt means, that graziers, desiring an area for which there was no competition, paid an agent large sums (in one case, £700) to procure a lease that could have been got by simple application. One result of these shady transactions is that large tracts of land, on which hundreds of families might have dwelt, will be massed in large pastoral holdings for many years to come. Numbers of farmers in the State and in England who were desirous of leasing or buying such lands, and of turning the sheepwalks into profitable farms, have had to emigrate to Queensland, Canada, or South Africa.

As day after day revelations were made, the air hurtled with missiles, and danger thickened around the chief actor. Barabbas fled—first to West Australia and then to Natal, on his way to London. In both the distant State and the more remote colony he was pursued by the authorities (under indignant popular pressure, be it told); and it reveals the flimsiness of the Australian Federal bond on the one hand, and the non-existence of a strong Imperial bond on the other, that the most persevering efforts have hitherto failed to bring back the robber to justice. Throughout the Empire, extradition for such offences is almost proved (for the end is not yet) to be impracticable.

While the grand conspirator was thus eluding justice, the Judas of the department scorned to flee. None of the transactions mentioned could have been completed without the coöperation or the connivance of the Minister for Lands. A series of confessions made by a station agent directly incriminated the late holder of the office. The story, as he told it, read like a passage from a mediæval mystery or a miracle play. Mephistopheles (the minister) met the new Faust (the agent) and whispered in his ear: "These land agents seem to make a lot of money; why should not *you* make some?" An unholy compact was silently made. "I understood him," said Faust, "and he understood me." The terms were those of all such arrangements. Renan amused a dinner party in Paris by relating an ancient tale about a Babylonian merchant and a dæmon, with whom he equally divided his spoils till he married, when the dæmon's claim of 50 per cent. became shockingly unreasonable. So did our two confederates go halves. Many thousands of pounds were thus shared. There was a lack of refinement in the relations between the pair. "I flung the money down," said the agent, snarling: " 'There's some money for you!' " Mephistopheles has evidently a great deal to put up with at the hands of his clients. On the back of these admissions the Commissioner, Mr. Justice Owen, directed that the ex-minister should be

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prosecuted. He was committed by the stipendiary, and last month he was tried before the Supreme Court. What with the technicalities of the law and the subterfuges of the chief witness, the case completely broke down, and the accused was discharged. His escape gave a profound shock to the public conscience.

There is much more to be told, but we should never end. The lantern carried by "the Light of the World" in Holman Hunt's luminous painting would be wanted to explore the Egyptian darkness of the Lands Office and reveal its piled-up abuses. A parliamentary Hercules is required to turn the Spercheios through these stables of Augeas. The Premier has announced that the Lands Office is to be reorganized, and placed under permanent commissioners who shall be emancipated from the political intervention and ministerial control that have wrecked it. The moral of the inquiry is that colonial public institutions are tainted with corruption exactly in proportion as they are pervaded by Socialism.

J. C.

Correspondence.

THE DANGERS OF CASUISTRY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have a neighbor, an Episcopal clergyman, who repeats the creed regularly, yet does not accept literally the statement, "born of the Virgin Mary." I asked him lately how he explained his apparent inconsistency. His explanation was in substance as follows: "The Eastern nations habitually accounted for the advent of a personage of heroic or extraordinary powers by ascribing to him a Virgin birth and a directly divine origin. This was the case with Zoroaster and Buddha; and the same idea is repeated in many of the Greek legends. The clause in the creed, therefore, is intended to affirm the divine origin of Christ, and, as I heartly believe in that divinity, I am constrained to repeat this particular affirmation. I should, in fact, violate my principles if I omitted it."

Such is my neighbor's profession—not his apology, for he believes himself entirely within his rights. Dr. Crapsey tells us, in effect, in his profession: "I do believe in the Virgin birth—that is to say, I believe Christ was born pure and immaculate." Finally, any one of his prosecutors (Dr. Locke, for example) would affirm his absolute and literal acceptance of the Virgin birth—an occurrence improbable to the last degree, contrary to all the experience of mankind, unsupported by any adequate evidence, and contradicted by the New Testament itself. Not only does he accept this cheerfully and without reserve, but he insists that Dr. Crapsey shall accept it as a matter of contract and compulsion. "This dogma," he would say, "was affirmed by the Council of Nice; if you deny it, you are not a Christian, though you may have all the virtues and most of the beliefs of a Christian."

Here, then, are three different kinds of interpretation and belief. Dr. Locke and his class accept unreservedly the clause in the creed, without any mundane proofs (to put it frankly); Dr. Crapsey accepts the same clause, figuratively and metaphorically; my neighbor accepts it with an elaborate and ingenious implication. They are all honorable gentlemen; the character of Dr. Crapsey, I may be permitted to say, since it was discussed publicly at the trial, is notorious among his intimates for sweetness, charity, honesty—for all the Christian virtues and graces.

Observe, now, what a burden and yoke the Council of Nice imposed on the intellect and conscience of these three gentlemen—the yoke of acceptance without evidence, or of acceptance, with certain subtilizings and refinements which the public might, perhaps unjustly, term casuistry. What habit of mind would naturally be engendered and developed by such modes of reasoning and interpretation? Suppose these gentlemen sitting in a court of equity for the interpretation of a will, and applying the same canons of evidence and interpretation to the decision of a case which involved the fortune of a man's wife and children. With what dismay would he regard the application of such methods! And, to come to my point, how is the ecclesiastic himself to guarantee the integrity of his reason—the sincerity of his "yea and nay"—against the contagion of such mental processes?

Let me quote what a great thinker and moralist says of their danger—a plain Pagan, who was not embarrassed by the physics or the metaphysics of the Council of Nice. Socrates, at his last hour, is cautioning his friends against the impropriety of inaccurate and misleading expressions—against promising that they will bury *him* when they mean that they will bury his *body*; "for false words," he adds, "are not only evil in themselves, but they infect the soul with evil." This is the voice of Plato speaking through the mask of Socrates.

E. L. S.

"MENSUR" and "KRIEGSHERR."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I beg to file some exceptions to your remarks on the German Emperor's telegram to the Austrian Foreign Minister apropos of the Algeciras conference. This telegram was written in German, and does not contain a single word alluding to or sugesting "the duelling-ground" from which you infer a deadly combat. The word used by the Emperor was "Mensur," a technical term among German students which has quite another meaning. "Mensur" means a measurement of strength, and is frequently used for all kinds of arguments, but never as a synonym for a deadly combat. Of course you relied on the Associated Press. By the way, does it not look queer that, of all the news spread broadcast all over the world by the Associated Press during recent years about German political affairs, more than 90 per cent. was absolute falsehood, or, to call a spade a spade, lies, made up for no other purpose than to stir up distrust and hatred against Germany? A short glance over the telegraphic news published during the last year will convince you of the correctness of my statement. Be this as it may, no German reading the telegram of the Emperor to Count Goluchowsky will derive from it the meaning upon which you base your indictment.

Even a verbatim translation is often very inept. Take, for instance, "Warlord." According to the Constitution of the German Empire, the Emperor is commander-in-chief of all the German armies in time of war. The President of the United States is commander of the United States army in time of peace too. This is not so in Germany. There the Emperor is commander-in-chief of only the Prussian army and the German navy, while the various monarchs retain their commanding power over their respective armies during peace. This command in war makes the Emperor master of the armies in war, for which the Germans have the very proper word "Kriegsherr," *i. e.*, master in time of war. Some ingenious fellow, with "little wit and ease to suit him," instead of translating this word into "commander-in-chief in time of war," found for it the magnificent word "Warlord." If it jollies the boys they are welcome to it, but the silliness remains.

Dr. E. Schrader.

Spokane, Wash., May 8, 1906.

A SPANISH LITERARY ENTERPRISE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I ask you to call the attention of your readers to the "Nueva Biblioteca de Autores Españoles," which has just been inaugurated at Madrid under the general editorship of Sr. Menéndez y Pelayo, the Director of the National Library in the Spanish capital? As the title indicates, the new series is in continuation of the "Biblioteca de Autores Españoles," successfully engineered by Rivadeneyra over half a century ago. The names of the collaborators of Menéndez y Pelayo in the present enterprise are in themselves a sufficient guarantee of the scholarship that will characterize the editorial work as a whole, for they include R. Menéndez Pidal and A. Bonilla y San Martín of the Central University of Madrid, M. Serrano y Sanz of the University of Saragossa, E. Cotarelo y Mori, M. Mir, Fr. Rodríguez Marín, and other well-known specialists. By a staff constituted of men like these attention will be paid to the great advance that has been made during the last fifty years in matters appertaining to philology, criticism, and the comparative history of literature, and therefore the scientific value of the "Nueva Biblioteca" will be appreciably higher than that of the Rivadeneyra series. This fact has been made patent by the appearance of the first number of the new publications, namely, Volume I. of Menéndez y Pelayo's 'Orígenes de la Novela,' containing an astonishingly full and clear account of the rise and growth of the novelistic fiction of Spain. A second number has likewise been published; it is entitled 'Autobiografías y Memorias de Españoles de los Siglos XVI y XVII,' and is due to the careful efforts of Serrano y Sanz.

There are already in press a second volume of Menéndez y Pelayo's book, Menéndez Pidal's longed-for 'Crónica general de España mandada escribir por Don Alfonso el Sabio,' Bonilla's 'Libros de Caballerías,' Cotarelo's 'Teatro del maestro Tirso de Molina,' Mir's 'Predicadores de los siglos XVI y XVII,' and an edition of Las Casas's 'Historia apologética de las Indias,' by Serrano. Among the volumes announced are 'Cantos populares españoles,' 'Obras selec-

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tas de Ramón Lull,' Sigüenza's 'Historia de la orden de San Jerónimo,' and the 'Obras completas de D. Ramón de la Cruz.'

To all students of Spanish literature it is obvious that many lacunæ are to be filled up by the new collection, which, if the hopes of the editors are realized, will embrace no fewer than seventy-one volumes. Furthermore, it is to be noted that attention is not restricted to Castilian authors:

"As our Library," says the prospectus, "calls itself one of *Spanish Authors*, it will not only comprehend Castilian authors (including in the number, of course, those born in the Spanish-American republics and the numerous Portuguese who have written no less in our language than in their own), but, in accordance with the express and reiterated desire of the two illustrious founders, D. Buenaventura Carlos Aribau and D. Manuel Rivadeneyra, there will figure at the end of this national work several volumes of Catalan poets and prose writers of the Middle Ages, chronicles so admirable as those of Don Jaime I., Desclot, Muntaner, and the one so long ascribed to Don Pedro IV., encyclopædic and doctrinal works of Ramón Lull and of Eximenis, novels such as the 'Tirant lo Blanch,' and the compositions of poets like Ausias March, Jaime Roig, and Corella. These publications will be bi-lingual, . . . for the text and the Spanish translation will be printed juxtalinearly."

In conclusion it may be stated that the editors contemplate including in the scheme of the "Nueva Biblioteca" Spanish translations of Latin works written by Spaniards during the Middle Ages and during the humanistic period, and, with the help of competent Orientalists, the works of Arabic and Hebrew authors that were actually produced on the soil of Spain. For the press-work of the two volumes already issued the highest praise must be accorded to the publishers, Messrs. Bailly-Baillière é hijos of Madrid; the quality of their paper and of their typography is a source of delight.

Yours truly, J. D. M. FORD.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY, May 6, 1906.

THE NOELDEKE FESTSCHRIFT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been asked to call the attention of libraries and of scholars to the publication of the 'Noeldeke Festschrift,' a publication in two volumes issued in commemoration of the seventieth birthday of the distinguished Professor Noeldeke of Strassburg, who is generally regarded as the world's leading Semitic scholar. On the occasion of his birthday his pupils and colleagues in all parts of the world united in paying him tribute by preparing articles of a scientific character for the 'Festschrift.' The two volumes contain contributions from eighty-five scholars, and it may fairly be said that the articles are commensurate with the reputations enjoyed by their authors.

The volumes are handsomely published, with a fine portrait of Professor Noeldeke and a bibliography of the distinguished scholar. The publisher (Alfred Töpelmann, Giessen) has undertaken this work as a labor of love and as a tribute of respect to Professor Noeldeke. It is not a commercial undertaking; and even if the entire edition is sold, the publisher, I am assured, will still be out of pocket.

Very truly yours,

MORRIS JASTROW, JR.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA, May 4, 1906.

Notes.

'A History of Seventh Day Baptists in West Virginia,' now in course of publication by its author, Corliss Fitz Randolph of Newark, N. J., is more comprehensive than its title, as it takes account also of the churches at Woodbridgetown and Salemville, Penn., and the Shrewsbury Church in New Jersey. The volume will be illustrated, and will be rich in genealogical material.

The Oxford University Press will shortly publish 'The King's English,' "illustrating by living examples, with the name of a reputable authority attached to each, all blunders that observation shows to be common." There will be a very full index.

On the 14th of December, 1909, it will be five hundred years since the University of Leipzig was organized by the secession of several thousand German students from the University of Prague. Arrangements are being already made to celebrate this semi-millennium by the publication of a massive work on the history of the city and the University of Leipzig. Professors Kämmel, Hähnel, Koetzschke, and Wüstmann will prepare the different parts referring to the university and city, while Professor Witkowski furnishes a general survey of the whole intellectual life of this academic centre.

The "Caxton" thin-paper pocket Newnes-Scribner editions of the English classics, externally delightful to the eye, and, with their limp covers, to the hand, are continued with Byron's Poems in three classified volumes, and Addison's Essays. Akin in appearance, but smaller, is Keble's 'Christian Year.' Each has its etched frontispiece.

Bunyan's 'Life and Death of Mr. Badman, and The Holy War,' reprinted in each case with much scrupulosity from the first edition, swells the excellent series of "Cambridge English Classics" issued by the University (New York: Macmillan).

Betwixt Classical Schools and the Stadium, Athens now makes a fresh appeal to English-speaking tourists, and these may like to know of a little "practical guide," 'Athens and the Environs,' published by C. Eleutherodakis (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). It has numerous illustrations, which, being half-tones, exact a glossy paper intolerable in a guide-book, and a folding map bounded by the Stadium on the south and the National Museum on the north—a divorce in space quite appropriate in our day. The text is in solid, very fine type, made less legible by being whimsically printed in red ink. *Per contra*, the English is evidently from the hand of one to whom the language is vernacular; but the publisher advertises his bookstore (not book*stall*, as one may see from the photograph) as the "oldest and largest book*shall* in the Orient"—a sin against our idiom in at least one particular.

Sigmund Krausz's 'Practical Automobile Dictionary' in English, French, and German (Frederick A. Stokes Co.) meets a growing and imperative need. It is, of course, almost wholly technical, with an eye to repairs, but *sergent de ville, mairie, procès-verbal, interrogation, interprète, avocat* and *dommages intérêts* are caution-signals against overspeeding and recklessness. The appendix contains frontier regulations for foreign automobile travel, a list of United States consulates in Europe, a table of cable rates from New York, with others of weights and measures, coins, etc.

From the press of T. W. Laurie, London, comes a little volume entitled 'Fishing for Pleasure and Catching It,' by the veteran "Amateur Angler," Mr. E. Marston. The book is quite varied in its contents, turning aside from the author's own angling experiences to extracts from the nature books of William J. Long, paraphrase of portions of the Song of Hiawatha, and other not very intimately related subjects. Mr. Marston can still tell an interesting story of a day out of doors when he tries, but the chief appeal of this volume must be to the readers of the series which have preceded it, beginning with the now rarely to be found 'Days in Dovedale,' which appeared in 1884.

'The Spoilers,' by Rex E. Beach (Harpers), is an attempted translation into fiction of the well-known Alaskan official rascalities to which the author has been applying the "muck-rake" in one of the magazines. Concerning the rascalities there is no question, and the title of the book is quite appropriate, since the appointments under which the Alaskan ring developed and did its dirty work were peculiarly of the spoils nature. In turning his material into the form of the novel, however, the writer has won no success other than that of maintaining a high sensational tension. "Primordial passions" (what a boon they have been to recent sensational novelists!) are seriously overworked, the comeliest of virtues seem almost of choice to keep the most questionable company, relief by the narrowest of margins makes connection with dire necessity in a proportion of cases beyond all human experience, and the capacity of the English language is sometimes put to sore straits to convey the strenuousness of the situation. Bret Harte could have fashioned two or three characteristic short stories of high value from parts of Mr. Beach's material, but the underlying struggle over a gold-claim is hardly adequate as the vertebral column of a serious novel. Nor was this later Alaskan corruption fundamentally as important as the crimes and blunders which at an earlier date fell so heavily upon the native population, as described in the *Atlantic* a few years ago by David Starr Jordan.

Budgett Meakin has published, through T. Fisher Unwin, an extensive compilation of information concerning model factories and villages and other attempts of intelligent employers of labor to further their own interests and the interests of their employees at the same time by establishing pleasant conditions of work. The greatest gain in such movements Mr. Meakin rightly feels to be the restoration of personal touch between employers and employed, which has been so largely sacrificed since the introduction of modern machinery and the consequent concentration of labor in large masses and generally at a distance from the residence of the employer. The practical success of these efforts, he thinks, depends on the preservation of a genuine spirit of fraternalism rather than paternalism. So far as is at all possible, the management of any institution for the benefit of the employed must

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be left in their own hands; and if the institution can be of their own devising, the employer simply giving moral and financial support, so much the better. Mr. Meakin strongly supports the tendency to remove large manufacturing concerns out of crowded cities to situations where light, air, and pleasant surroundings are possible, and where the health and comfort of the laborer are, of course, supported by the possible saving in land values. The many scores of concrete illustrations cited, from Great Britain, the Continent, and especially the United States, indicate a more rapid quickening of conscience and commendable self-interest in such matters than most people have been aware of. The book is abundantly supplied with photographic illustrations, but they are too often of inferior quality. There is no good reason for the annoying division of the inadequate index into two parts.

That a third edition of Dubois's and Beauchamp's 'Hindu Manners, Customs and Ceremonies' (H. Frowde) has been called for within a few years is sufficient proof of the value of this record of personal experiences by one of the most trustworthy of students. Mr. Beauchamp's part has lain in editing and correcting the manuscripts (of which there are two versions) of Dubois. Since the original publication of the MS., prepared in 1806, there was no opportunity to secure the revised text except in French form, copies of which are extremely rare, till the first revised English text was published in 1897. The third edition of this revised text compresses the two volumes of the first edition into one little book of 700 pages, which compensates for inferior paper by its handiness. In other respects it is identical with the former editions.

The latest volume of the Columbia University "Indo-Iranian Series" is a 'Bibliography of the Sanskrit Drama,' by Montgomery Schuyler, jr., now secretary of legation and consul-general of this country to Siam. Parts of this work have already appeared in the *Journal* of the American Oriental Society. The ordinary reader will naturally feel more interest in the introductory "Sketch of the Sanskrit Drama" than in the lists of authors and titles of works which perforce make a bibliography; but to the Sanskrit student these lists, difficult to compile, will be of permanent use, and even to the student of drama in general it will be a great convenience to have at hand such references to the literature of the subject as are here given. Mr. Schuyler appears to have exhausted his subject as far as possible, which includes lists of manuscripts as well as of printed works.

Another school edition of Schiller's "Tell" has been added to the many already published, the editor being Dr. E. C. Roedder, assistant professor of German philology at the University of Wisconsin (American Book Co.). There are the usual paraphernalia of vocabulary, explanatory notes, and a good critical and historical introduction, but what is of special merit is the attempt to create for the student, by means of footnotes describing the dress and each separate act of the character then appearing and talking, a *Bühnebild*, or stage picture; the material being largely that which made Jautsch's stage edition unique. There is also a good bibliography not found in preceding American editions.

Students of ornithology who have been in the Philippines or who have cast an inquiring eye in that direction, will be interested to know of a new Philippine Government publication, entitled 'A Hand-List of the Birds of the Philippine Islands,' by McGregor and Worcester, which is Bulletin No. 36, Department of the Interior, Manila. It was prepared by R. C. McGregor, Philippine Government ornithologist, and revised by Prof. Dean C. Worcester, Secretary of the Interior, who himself secured his first knowledge of the Philippines as an ornithological explorer in 1887-1888 and in 1890-1893, in company with Dr. Frank S. Bourns. Worcester and Bourns's list of Philippine birds, which was republished by the Smithsonian Institution in 1898, showed 243 genera and 596 species. The new list is, of course, the most complete to date, the work of Mr. McGregor and of volunteer workers having produced many additions; it shows 284 genera and 691 species.

It is a pleasure to note at last one American periodical in the Philippines which is not an organ of truculent jingoism or an exponent of general cheapness. The American newspapers and weeklies of Manila have been of this sort or have had a very ephemeral existence. But the *Far Eastern Review*, published at Manila by an American and devoted to engineering, commerce, and finance in the Orient in general, is a monthly publication of more solid character. The January number, for instance, has as its leading illustrated article an excellent description of the construction of the Canton-Samshui branch of the Canton-Hankow Railway, an enterprise which is of great importance for the development of southern China. The recent construction of large public works in the Philippines, especially in Manila, appears to have given the occasion for the publication of such a periodical, whereas other American periodicals in the Philippines have mainly had their foundation in soldier-domination. The February number of the *Review* contains, besides some interesting news as to Philippine railway construction and illustrated material upon public improvements in Manila, a very enlightening contribution upon the already important and growing shipyards of Japan, and articles upon water-power electric plants in Mysore, India, and timber tramways in Madras. The Japanese, it seems, have taken over the English technical terms for shipbuilding as well as on board their steamships.

The *Indian Mirror* of March 10 contains reports of the meetings held in Calcutta by educated natives of India to hear the two Japanese scholars, Dr. Motoda, principal of the Formosan College in Tokio, and Mr. Harada of Kobe, an editor, on "The Progress of Japan." Other themes treated were "The Young Men of Japan" and "The Orient and the Occident." Both speakers were content to state facts; the former outlining the system of public education in Japan, showing the emphasis laid on industrial, technical, and professional training, and the latter portraying political development since 1853. Dr. Motoda was more pragmatic, and his colleague more historical, in his review. Mr. Harada, declining to state the problem in items of logic or inference, whether a pleasure or otherwise to Orientals, dwelt upon results without inquiring deeply into causes. He showed that, in old Japan, popular education, individual right, and religious liberty, which are the common ideas of modern civilization, "to say nothing of the manifold conveniences and improvements of material civilization," were unknown. Summing up statistically his country's progress, Harada states that "the grade of a civilization may be fairly tested by the position accorded to woman." In 1905, besides a woman's university and over 100 high schools for girls, 18,000 women were teachers in the common schools, while the occupations of clerks, physicians, editors, etc., are open to them. "As different as a moon from a tortoise" is the Japanese way of contrasting the old and the new condition of woman.

A new and interesting subject, the ancient commercial roads (*Handelsstrassen*) of Germany, is treated by F. Rauers of Bremen in number three of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*. He throws much light on the inner history of those days, showing how, for instance, noblemen, priests, and pilgrims were allowed free passage, but a toll was required from all others; how the building of new roads and the use of cross or by-roads was prohibited by the Government and the landowners. The rise and fall of great cities is noticed. Nuremberg reached the height of its prosperity at the close of the old and the beginning of the new period, and then Leipzig took its place. Till the Spanish conquest of the Netherlands, first Bruges, then Antwerp, were the great world ports, to be replaced by Hamburg and Bremen. A large map in color shows the different kinds of roads in the first part of the sixteenth century; even those on which traffic was forbidden are designated. Professor Hess gives the results of numerous observations on the winter flow of glacier brooks, and Dr. Friederichsen contributes a long note upon the additions to our knowledge of the morphology of the Tian-shan Mountains through the researches of Prof. W. M. Davis and Ellsworth Huntington.

The financial committee of the Danish Folkething has accepted the proposal of the Minister for Public Defences to give the sum of 13,000 kroner towards the proposed Mylius Erichsen polar expedition along Northeastern Greenland. The total expense of the expedition is calculated at 260,000 kroner, half of which sum has been contributed by private persons. The expedition starts from Copenhagen at the end of June, and expects to return by the fall of 1908, while taking such a route that no news from it can be expected before its return. In addition to the Danish participants, a German, Dr. A. Wegener, as physicist and meteorologist, and the Russian Baron von Fircke, as geologist, will accompany the expedition.

From Brussels news comes that 500,000 francs has been subscribed for a Belgian expedition to the South Pole to start in 1907 and to explore the Pacific side of the Antarctic regions, returning in 1908. A preliminary congress of experienced polar investigators of all nations is to be held in Brussels in May to advise in the matter.

Lord Cromer's annual report on Egypt and the Sudan, just published, is one of the most valuable and suggestive documents issued by any Government. While

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the economic condition of Egypt is highly favorable, he calls attention to the danger of depending too exclusively on one crop, cotton, and recommends an increase in the cultivation of sugar and the introduction of cereal crops. The largest space is devoted to the question of proposed modification of the Capitulations, of which we have already spoken. Of especial interest at this time is Lord Cromer's description of the primitive social conditions which prevail in the Sinaitic peninsula, and the means which have been taken to improve them. In treating of the Sudan, he dwells at some length upon the great advantage which it has over Egypt in its "freedom from the complicated network of international institutions in which the Egyptian administration was, and to a great extent still is, entangled." The great wants are labor and capital, and the important question is what public works shall be undertaken. Lord Cromer contends that the construction of railways should precede that of irrigation works, and says that surveys are now being made of lines to connect Khartum with El-Obeid on the west and Kassala on the east of the Nile. He recommends, besides, the building of a railway up the Blue Nile, as an essential preliminary to the construction of any large irrigation works intended to fertilize the extensive tract of country known as the Ghezireh, lying between the Blue and White Niles.

The practical problems which the contact with Western civilization forces upon the pious Moslem for solution to-day are numerous and interesting. One of the ulemas or teachers of the University of Al-Azhar at Cairo, the leading Mohammedan university, has just published two pamphlets on the subject of phonographs and insurance, and their relations to the Sacred Law of Islam. He declares that there is nothing in Islamic doctrine to forbid Moslems to listen to the phonograph, and that, if sentences of the Koran are suitably intoned from the instrument, the listener may be justly considered to be performing an act of worship. Fire and life insurance, on the other hand, are condemned by the Sheikh as a gambling transaction, contrary in spirit to the teaching of the Koran.

We are obliged to a correspondent who reminds us that, in our recent account of the new Imperial Library building at Tokio, we inadvertently substituted *feet* for *metres* in stating dimensions.

—By insisting that extracts from contemporary material should tell the story of his 'Declaration of Independence' (Dodd, Mead & Co.), Mr. John H. Hazelton has produced an elaborate work for reference rather than for reading. It may be taken as embodying the final study of the Declaration as a document. Every known detail concerning its framing, signing, and publication has been carefully gathered. The author has resorted to the originals of the letters, diaries, drafts, and memoranda wherever found, and depended upon printed sources only where the original manuscript could not be located. The amount of labor put into the compilation and collation of authorities is notable, and the results seem sometimes hardly worth the trouble involved. The text of seven forms or versions of the Declaration are collated, and the wealth of notes explain every shade of difference among them, every incident connected with the attendance and opinions of the members of the Continental Congress. The eleven facsimile reproductions are well chosen and are of real value. With a lawyer's training Mr. Hazelton examines the contradictions of those who sought to describe the events before and after the Declaration, and it is not strange that the credibility of some should be challenged. Even Jefferson, as much interested as any man could be in giving a true relation, does not stand the test; while McKean and others, writing as they did long after the event, are shown to be weak authorities in matters in which they had taken an active part. Certainly, Mr. Hazelton has produced an encyclopædic work on this one state paper.

—Unfortunately, his methods have serious defects. It is not enough to string together a large number of extracts from contemporary documents. Unless they are well digested, only a partial picture, confused by over detail, can be gained. For example, the debates in Parliament after the Declaration reached England are summarized by extracts; but the effect produced on the Continent of Europe is dismissed in a few sentences from Bancroft. Nor does Mr. Hazelton weigh his authorities. The rhetorical phrases put in the mouth of Henry by Wirt are quite as important to him as the known writings of Washington or Jefferson. An anonymous communication to a newspaper receives as great consideration as a contemporary official document. No attempt is made to estimate the numbers in each colony in favor of independence, and the Loyalist side of the question receives scant notice. In the great mass of quotation the reader finds it difficult to retain the thread of the story, and indeed must find that thread by his own efforts, for the system of notes and cross-references (which, with the appendix, comprise one-half of this bulky volume) is as original as it is confusing. It is almost impossible to refer from the notes of one chapter to those of another, and the great repetition of like references could easily have been avoided. Clearness would have been gained by giving one class of notes with the text of the chapter, relegating to the appendix special quotations or discussions. Notwithstanding the author's care, misprints may be found, and curiously careless references to printed books. Yet, in spite of its drawbacks, the volume cannot but be highly useful to the student of sources. The publishers have done their part well.

—William Morris once declared to a friend that Mary Stuart was the greatest bore in history, and expressed wonder at the interest taken by Swinburne in such a theme. Carlyle had the same opinion about "Junius," and doubtless all of us are plunged into a state of profound ennui by the mention of some too famous name. Certain it is that a careful analysis of the historical periodicals which deal with general subjects rather than particular periods or movements, will show more articles to the credit of Mary Stuart than to the credit or debit of any other personage. This statement, which we make after giving special attention to the matter, is here called forth by Mr. T. F. Henderson's 'Mary Queen of Scots, her Environment and Tragedy' (Scribners). The object of the work—and an object pursued through two volumes—is to deal "in a somewhat detailed and critical fashion with the main episodes of her career." This does not mean that the book becomes a series of technical studies rather than a genuine biography. It is a sketch of the Queen's life first, and a commentary upon the moot points of Marian literature in the second place only. Mr. Henderson prides himself upon his freedom from ecclesiastical prepossessions, and writes neither to praise nor blame. How complete is his detachment from theological partisanship the narrative of Mary's execution proves. "Perfectly faithful to her supposed religious convictions and ambitions she had not been; but, whatever the nature of the value she set on the form of religion with which her life had been so peculiarly associated, she had had sufficient cause to be now, at the end of it, an enemy to Protestantism. . . . She must on the whole be ranked amongst the countless victims that throughout the ages have been immolated on the devouring altar of Christian intolerance. But the causes that determined her immolation were complex and manifold." With regard to the details of Darnley's murder, Mr. Henderson is not disposed to differ from the results arrived at by Mr. Lang, and in the Queen's fatal passion for Bothwell he sees the cause of her willingness to take any and every risk. From a controversial standpoint (and there remains little but controversy in the life of Mary Stuart), the most entertaining part of this work is its criticism, in a long appendix, of Mr. Lang's theory regarding the Casket Letters. With great skill and every show of candor, Mr. Lang has argued against the authenticity of the letters. Mr. Henderson, with full recognition of the cleverness displayed, regards the thesis of forgery to be impossible from beginning to end. His arguments, covering thirty-five pages, we are unable to rehearse. Like the literature of the Gunpowder Plot and the Popish Plot, the dialectics of this mystery proceed from a body of evidence which is not only conflicting, but vitiated by the spirit of special pleading. The chief thing for the reader of the present biography is that Mr. Henderson, while viewing the letters as genuine, is still able to admire the more heroic elements in the Queen's character. His book not only claims to be free from prepossessions, but succeeds much better than most works on Mary Stuart in preserving the mood of objectivity. The illustrations are numerous and excellent.

—The discussion of the plan for the Union Catalogue continues in the *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, the February number containing not less than three contributions on the subject. Dr. C. W. Berghoeffer outlines a plan for the organization of the undertaking, involving a comparison of the Berlin title-entries by four of the largest libraries, Strassburg, Leipzig, Munich, and Göttingen, before the entries are printed for distribution in proof among the rest; further, the printing of both card and book catalogues, and the preparation of a classed catalogue in book form. Prof. B. Bess points out that a com-

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plete list of all the books in the coöperating libraries is not needed; that the Union Catalogue is an undertaking in the interest of scholarship, and that consequently some limitations must be put on the work. Dr. Schwenke's article in the March number, on the appropriations for cataloguing purposes in German libraries, is not directly connected with the present discussion, though it touches on points related to it, in showing that the appropriations for cataloguing in most libraries are entirely inadequate. In the April number Dr. O. Glausing presents an adverse criticism of the whole plan, which he regards as injurious to the individuality of the several libraries, and tending to destroy the interest of library workers in "their" institutions. Incidentally he attacks what he regards as a tendency to enhance the importance of technique at the cost of scholarship, and deplores the discontinuance of the gatherings of librarians in connection with the "Philologentag." Dr. Schwenke, in a short rejoinder, points out that one of the reasons for this was that so many librarians were specialists in other branches of learning than philology, and felt more or less out of place there; and the opposing tendencies in the library world to-day are, he rightly says, not characterized by the term technique vs. scholarship, but by that of isolation vs. coöperation.

—In the same number Dr. A. Keysser proposes that, in addition to the Union Catalogue, a Guide to German Libraries be prepared, showing, together with other pieces of information about the libraries, the present locations of the many collections formerly belonging to monasteries, bishoprics, or other institutions, as well as to individual collectors and scholars, but which in course of time have been absorbed by other libraries. Information as to many of these may be found in Schwenke's 'Addressbuch der Deutschen Bibliotheken,' but the smaller collections are not mentioned there, and the book is now thirteen years old. The proposed Guide should also tell of the literary specialties of the various libraries, so that students may be able to choose the one most likely to be of aid to them in their investigations. It would, besides, serve the libraries themselves by crystallizing, so to speak, their efforts at specialization. Dr. Keysser's proposal is worth considering in this country, too. It is fourteen years since Messrs. W. C. Lane and C. K. Bolton published their 'Notes on Special Collections in American Libraries.' We understand that a new edition of this work is among the publications contemplated by the Bibliographical Society of America. The American Library Association appointed some years ago a committee to prepare a 'Handbook of American Libraries,' and at the Magnolia meeting of the Association in 1902, the committee reported that the Handbook would be printed by the end of that year; but the following year, at the Niagara Falls meeting, the committee was discharged, at its own request, without having published anything.

GREENE'S PLAYS.

The Plays and Poems of Robert Greene. Edited, with Introductions and Notes, by J. Churton Collins, Litt.D. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1905.

The Delegates of the Clarendon Press were late in realizing their responsibilities with regard to the Modern English classics, their efforts in this direction for many years being limited almost entirely to the publication of select school editions. They have evidently begun now in earnest, however, to make good past deficiencies, and in no department of literature are their labors likely to be crowned with more cordial blessings than in that of our old dramatists. The admirable editions of Kyd and Lyly which they have lately presented to the world are among the most highly prized volumes that have been added of recent years to the shelves of students of English literature, and the new edition of the 'Plays and Poems of Robert Greene,' under the editorship of Mr. Churton Collins, will worthily find a place by the side of these achievements. It is true that Mr. Collins, in the preparation of it, has not come upon any new material relating to the life of his author of such startling interest as that which rewarded the research of Mr. Boas in the case of Kyd. Nor was his task one of such magnitude as that which Mr. Bond has performed with such credit to himself in his edition of Lyly. On the other hand, he does not yield to either of these editors in mastery of his subject, in the care which he has bestowed on his text (of the plays, at least), or in the value of his critical apparatus. This last feature of the edition, in fulness and accuracy, is, as it should be, up to the level which has long been required in the case of the Greek and Latin classics, and, we might add also, in the case of writers of the mediæval period. The notes especially are replete with learning. If we now proceed to criticise some of the views which Mr. Collins advances in his general and special introductions to the plays, we do not mean in so doing to disparage the excellence of this edition, which we believe will be received with grateful recognition by all students of the English drama.

One of the most interesting points, we think, which Mr. Collins makes is in regard to the limits of Greene's dramatic activity. This did not begin, according to the editor before the first part of 1591, and, lasting until his death in the following year, covered not quite two years. If this view—which differs from that of all previous writers on the subject—is correct, it may be accepted as practically certain that we possess the whole (unassisted) dramatic production of Greene—namely, "Alphonsus," "Orlando Furioso," "Friar Bacon and Friar Bungay," and "The Scottish History of James the Fourth." Of the two remaining plays included in this edition, Greene composed "A Looking-Glass for London and England" in collaboration with Thomas Lodge, and the authorship of "The Pinner of Wakefield" is doubtful. Our editor justly rejects "Selimus" entirely from the canon of Greene's works, and the plays which Shakspere recast under the name of "The Second and Third Parts of Henry VI." he very naturally does not reproduce, although inclined to believe that Greene had a hand in them. Mr. Collins infers the above limits of date for Greene's activity as a dramatist from the silence on this subject of the author—usually communicative enough in everything that related to himself—and also of his friend Nash—down to 1591. We are perhaps not at liberty to draw inferences about Greene's life from his romances, although they are so largely autobiographical, else we might point out that the hero of 'Francesco's Fortunes' (1590), being in circumstances like those of Greene, ashamed to face his wife, remained in London and supported himself by writing plays. In any event, however, there are passages in pamphlets of both Greene and Nash of later date than 1591 which, as it seems to us, point to a different conclusion in regard to this matter. For instance, take the passage in the posthumous 'Repentance,' where Greene says: "After I had continued some short time and driven myself out of credit with sundry of my friends, I became an author of plays and a penner of love pamphlets, so that I soon grew famous in that quality that who for that trade grown so ordinary about London as Robin Greene?" This passage, from its context, would seem to refer to a time shortly after Greene's leaving the University for good. Still further, in view of Nash's statement in his 'Strange News' concerning Greene, that "he was the chiefe agent for the companie, for he writ more than four other," it is hard to conceive that his production was limited to something less than the last two years of his life and the five plays we possess. Indeed, when citing this last passage, a doubt evidently comes over Mr. Collins himself in regard to the tenability of the opinion which he has asserted with so much emphasis elsewhere, and he makes the concession that "it is possible that his dramatic activity extended over at least four years."

There is another matter of more importance than the above, involving, among other things, a question of date also, in which we find ourselves taking issue with Mr. Collins—the question, we mean, of the supposed influence of Greene on Shakspere. "It seems to me, indeed," says Mr. Collins in winding up his comments on this subject, "that Shakspere owes as much in romantic comedy to Greene as he owed to Marlowe in history and tragedy." Now, even Marlowe's influence on Shakspere, unmistakable as it is, has been, in our opinion, often greatly exaggerated, except in those matters where the example of the earlier writer determined the development of the Elizabethan drama generally. But what specific instance of the influence of plays written by Greene on plays written by Shakspere can be cited that will at all correspond to the influence of "Edward II." on "Richard II.," or of the method of characterization in "Tamburlaine" on that in "Richard III."? Mr. Collins notes especially the similarity in versification and diction between Greene's "medleys" and the earlier comedies of Shakspere. The question of diction is too elusive and subjective a matter to count for much here—at least as long as no detailed investigation of the problem has been made. We confess that, for our own part, we have not been struck with this similarity; and surely the resemblance in versification does not extend beyond peculiarities which are common to all blank verse in the earlier Elizabethan drama—namely, monotony of structure and the tendency to make

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logical and rhythmical pauses coincide. Mr. Collins says still further on this subject: "We open Greene's comedies and we are in the world of Shakspere; we are with the sisters of *Olivia* and *Imogen*, with the brethren of *Touchstone* and *Florizel*, in the homes of *Phoebe* and *Perdita*. We breathe the same atmosphere, we listen to the same language." And in the paragraph that follows: "It was Greene who first brought comedy into contact with poetry, into contact with romance. He took it out into the woods and the fields and gave it all the charm of the idyll; he filled it with incident and adventure, and gave it all the interest of the Novel." Now, there is an undeniable freshness and charm about the country scenes in the best of Greene's plays which is well expressed in the words of Mr. Collins last quoted, but is the atmosphere of "As You Like It" or "Winter's Tale," two of the plays referred to above, really due in any measure, however remote, to the influence of Greene's dramas? Is it not rather the natural result of Shakspere's magic genius working on the pastoral material which he found embodied in Lodge's "Rosalynde" and Greene's "Pandosto"?

In making up our judgment on this question of Greene's relation to Shakspere, it is necessary, besides, to pay heed to the matter of dates. There are only two of Greene's (extant) plays—namely, "Friar Bacon and Friar Bungay" and "The Scottish History of James the Fourth"—which it is possible to conceive of as influencing Shakspere's romantic comedies. Now the earlier of these two is assigned by Mr. Collins himself to the "end of 1591, or the beginning of 1592." But by this time Shakspere had certainly produced "Love's Labor's Lost" (to say nothing of "The Comedy of Errors"), and it is an open question whether he had not already composed also "The Two Gentlemen of Verona." The fact that Greene's dramas are more archaic and cruder in workmanship does not prove anything, for under any supposition, where the dates run so close together as in the case of the two sets of plays we are here discussing, this must have been due practically altogether to Greene's inferiority in genius, and accordingly Shakspere's superior constructive power cannot be ascribed to the improvement which naturally comes with time in the development of any literary *genre*. To be sure, these early plays of Shakspere's are not exactly in the style of "As You Like It" or "Winter's Tale," but we may safely say that all that was necessary for the birth of romantic comedy, as illustrated by these last-named plays, was for the author of "Love's Labor's Lost" to light on the Elizabethan pastoral romances, and it is not at all necessary to call in a theory of extraneous influence. As far as the charm of country life is concerned, the germs of that are surely not absent from "Love's Labor's Lost," to say nothing of "The Two Gentlemen of Verona," and we should not forget besides that, long before this, in all probability, Shakspere had already composed his "Venus and Adonis." In conclusion, on this subject of the relations of Greene and Shakspere, is it not too much to say that the "Midsummer Night's Dream" "only gave more articulate expression to what found stammering and partial expression in the interlude portions" of "The Scottish History of James the Fourth"? The idea of introducing *Oberon* into this play was not improbably derived from Greene, but surely it is rather Lord Berners's 'Huon of Bordeaux' (or possibly some early dramatization of that romance) which gave Shakspere the main conception of his character of the fairy-king, who (unlike *Oberon* in Greene's drama), as a beneficent *deus ex machina*, takes as active a part in the troubles of the "human mortals" as the corresponding character in the Old French romance.

It is perhaps too much to expect that in a work issued under the auspices of the University of Oxford the spelling of the original editions of these plays should be modernized. We cannot but feel, however, that the retention of such spellings as "heel" for "he'll," or "shoes" for "shows"—simply to choose examples at random—are likely to detract from the pleasure of the reader without serving any good purpose, save, perhaps, in the case of an occasional student of Elizabethan pronunciation and orthography. We believe that there are few students of literature (as distinguished from pronunciation) who will not congratulate themselves that the general editor of the Variorum Beaumont and Fletcher, now appearing, has had the courage boldly to modernize the text in this matter of spelling. Quite as objectionable, it seems to us, is the general tendency of the times, which Mr. Collins follows here, to reproduce typographical peculiarities of sixteenth and seventeenth-century texts in editing works of these periods. We refer particularly to the italicization of proper names. Mr. Collins, for instance, reproduces the name of the River Volga just as he finds it in the original quarto, not only italicized, but with a small initial letter. Of the last point we may even remark that it is most likely merely a printer's error (in the quarto). In a world full of irreverence, why, we may ask, should printer's errors be regarded as especially sacred?

In conclusion, we would call attention to an interesting feature of Mr. Collins's edition of Greene's plays—namely, a more accurate reproduction of the Alleyn MS. (now at Dulwich College) of Greene's "Orlando Furioso" than has hitherto been printed. This manuscript (which is fragmentary in its present state) is evidently the very copy from which the famous actor Alleyn, who took the leading rôle in the play, learned his part. Owing to the purpose for which it was intended, the manuscript simply contains the speeches which the actor was to deliver in the character of *Orlando*, together with the cues to these speeches. As Mr. Collins remarks, this is "not merely the only important manuscript we have belonging to so early a period of the Elizabethan drama, but, when we compare it with the text of the Quarto, we see either how greatly the stage copies were altered when a play was printed, or how greatly the printed copies must have varied from the stage copies, and presumably, therefore, from the author's manuscript."

A FINLANDER ON REVOLUTIONARY RUSSIA.

The Russian Revolutionary Movement. By Konni Zilliacus. Translated by the authority and at the request of the Author. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

Amid the flood of portentous volumes which has poured from the world's presses during the past two years on the topic of Russia's internal politics and condition, together with their origins and future, this work merits attention chiefly because it emanates from a native of Finland. Finlanders have enjoyed, for many years, numerous privileges and immunities above the native subjects of the Tsar, and have thriven upon them, in worldly goods and in culture, with due appreciation of their rights and advantages, until the unwise usurpation of chartered prerogatives a few years ago (now, happily, abandoned) aroused them to hostility. Precisely because of that hostility Mr. Zilliacus's attempt to set forth the whole case judicially is of value, in that it demonstrates the admirable temper of the people of whom, we have a right to assume, he is an average example. Far from agreeing with those reviewers (mentioned by him) who have expressed doubts as to his impartiality, we heartily assent to his declaration that "no partiality has wittingly dictated the opinions expressed." Indeed, the very calmness and cautious semi-aloofness of his manner constitute one of the most convincing evidences as to his personal character, his attitude, and the facts. He frankly "pleads guilty to partiality to the fighters against autocratic despotism"; but that partiality (which the mere existence of the book logically presupposes) is not allowed to exceed legitimate bounds.

The difficulty is, that, after Prof. Paul Miliukoff's invaluable work, 'Russia and Its Crisis,' the foreigner or semi-foreigner is, practically, driven from the field. But this does not imply that Zilliacus's serious effort to state the problem and its solution possesses no value or deserves to be dismised with a few indifferent words. Those who know not Miliukoff may chance upon Zilliacus and desire to learn to what degree he has succeeded in his task. First of all it must be stated that the author's conversion to the revolutionary cause was not effected by the recent injustice of Russia toward Finland; he mentions that he was one of the contributors to a revolutionary journal established in 1887, which did not enjoy a long life because it was printed in Switzerland, too far from its editorial base in St. Petersburg. It advocated "moderate political reform," he says, although Vera Sassulitch and other extreme revolutionaries were also among the contributors. When, however, the crisis became acute under Nicholas II., and the Russian revolutionaries were regarded in Finland as "criminals, or at best as utopians of a dangerous kind," the author prepared the present volume as a "part of the work of enlightenment" for his fellow-countrymen. It is precisely this long connection with revolutionaries, coupled with his remark that "no statements of facts have been made without as far as possible having been checked as to correctness by reference to other than revolutionary sources of information," which evokes sur-

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prise at many points, as will presently appear.

Our author starts out with the assumption that "the seed of the social evolution in Russia which in our day has brought Tsardom to the verge of revolution, must be considered as having been sown by none other than Tsar Peter the Reformer, or the Great, as he is styled." That is a good start, regarded from the spectacular point of view. As a matter of fact, Peter only accentuated and vigorously accelerated the (r)evolutionary movement initiated by his father, who was, in turn, the heir in that respect of former Tsars; just as the rulers of other lands do their share in (r)evolution initiated by their predecessors in a line whereof one individual always receives the credit and thanks, in many cases for the whole movement, no doubt because of personal attributes or the accidents of history. However, Mr. Zilliacus makes his point clearly, that "the first revolutionary outbreak," at the accession of Nicholas I. (known as the plot of the "Decembrists"), bore a direct relation to the spirit evoked by Peter I., and ably maintained by Catherine II., who remained absolute autocrats, equally with the first Nicholas, despite the reforms they introduced in certain directions. Under the chapters respectively designated "The Era of Reform," "The Revolutionary Movement," and "The Terror," we obtain a compact account of the three periods of Alexander II.'s reign. In the last-named chapter a just observation is made which, although indispensable, is generally omitted in discussing the reluctance of peasants and workingmen to yield to the revolutionary propaganda. Incidentally, it explains present conditions, in some sections of the country, during these troublous times, while it also illustrates the change which has come over certain classes since the epoch directly in question.

"Workmen and peasants were well alive to the fact that their existence and surroundings were wretched, and that thorough-going changes must be effected. A practical programme of reform, the meaning of which they could grasp at once, would have secured their whole-hearted support; but the vast majority of them could not go into raptures over principles and theories. If the authorities had understood what a poor chance the propaganda, urged with so much enthusiasm but also with such limited common sense, possessed of creating a really genuine popular movement, the propagandists might have been left undisturbed to realize for themselves how little their methods were calculated to achieve any result. This would undoubtedly have been much more judicious from the political, not to mention the humane, point of view."

That the revolutionaries of that epoch did eventually attain to such realization was confessed to the writer of this review by Stepniak, who narrated his personal experience among the peasants in that line. From Stepniak, also, the writer heard the story of how he assassinated Mesentseff, chief of the Third Section, and hence is able to correct a small detail in our author's account of that notorious affair. It took place not on the Nevsky Prospect (as here stated), but on a parallel street, the Grand Italian, at nine o'clock in the morning. The difference is more important than may appear, at first sight, to the non-expert; it aggravates the daring of the assassin in a degree, precisely as the transference of the scene for such a crime from Irving Place to Broadway would constitute an aggravation in New York.

For example, the extremely well-known ex-Procurator of the Holy Synod, Constantine Petrovitch Pobiedonostzeff, is called "Paul." The title of "Prince" is accorded to Constantine Aksakoff, in the same breath which calls his brother (rightly) plain "Ivan." There are only three Metropolitans in Russia; yet Zilliacus appears to think there are five, divorcing the double titles of two, St. Petersburg-Novgorod and Moscow-Kolomna, and thus multiplying their possessors and increasing the size of the Holy Synod, which he professes to state accurately. A different sort of multiplication and confusion arises from lack of uniformity of spelling, such as Garikoff and Harikoff (Kharkoff); Gomel and Homel (both cases involving a question of phonetics as well as of orthography); Balmascheff, Belmatcheff, and Belmatscheff; "the poet, Maxim Gorki"—Gorki being a prose writer of poetic temperament, not a poet; the statement that the Countess Stroganoff was a relative of the Imperial family. Other puzzling errors may be typographical or emanate from the author; Schian for Shisn (or Zhizn), and Mir Coschi for Mir Bozhi; Tifomiroff for Tikhomiroff; Miliuvoff for Miliukoff; Diniaburg for Dunaburg; Ulfa for Ufa; Gorevikin for Goremikin—all names of well-known persons and places; *dvornikos*, an utterly un-Russian form, for *dvorniki*—to which the explanatory footnote is misleading, as these yard-porters neither are nor can be "grooms." To two quotations from other authors, which Zilliacus uses without comment or objection, apparently with full approval, we are indebted for a grave misrepresentation of the truth and what is, we trust, a comical misstatement. Speaking of the Stundists (who, as they originated not earlier than 1860, can hardly have been "the most severely persecuted during the last two centuries of the many religious sects"), he states, on the authority of the *Christian World*, that the pictures of the saints hung on Russian walls are called "God" by the people, who burn sacred oil before them. The oil is not "sacred" and the word mistaken for "God" (bog) is *bozhnitza*, indicating the "image-case" (with its contents, of course), derived from the adjective *bozhiy*, *pertaining to God*, and *meaning simply* that the saints whose pictures are referred to are connected with God—a proposition which even enthusiastic "Protestants" would hardly deny to saints! The comical quotations deal with the habits of the Molokani, another sect. "They have no churches; a house, an open yard, or, better still, a field, serves the believers as *sleeping*-places" (the italics are ours)!

The enumeration of "Ukrania" (it should be "Ukraina"), Ruthenia, and Little Russia as separate nationalities belonging to the Empire is a gross error of statement on the part of the author, who, strangely enough, in the same paragraph, as well as in a preceding chapter, when discussing the prohibition of the Little Russian language and the "war of the Government against the Little Russian nationality," appears to be fully cognizant of the fact that, for all practical purposes, the three designations are identical. What he is evidently ignorant of is, that the restrictions on the Little Russian language (or, more properly speaking, dialect) were resorted to as a means of preventing political agitation along factious lines, tending towards disruption dangerous to the peace of the Empire and of Europe, wherein purely literary and innocent poetry and prose played a remarkable part, and were accordingly placed under the ban as premeditatedly seditious pamphlets would have been elsewhere. Inextricably involved with this far-reaching question of the Ukraine is that of federation, to which the author refers, but without fully comprehending its scope.

A misconception of rather serious nature causes the author to state that Jews (because many were engaged in smuggling), "were forbidden to live at a greater distance than fifty versts from the frontier," and were, consequently, "driven indiscriminately to the town nearest to the fifty-verst limit"; Berditsheff being specifically mentioned as an instance, in connection with the terrible over-crowding thus entailed. The fact is, that the law prohibited their residence at a distance of *less* than fifty versts from the frontier, as is logically apparent, even to those ignorant of the case in hand; and Berditsheff, which is 150 versts from the frontier, thus cited in confirmation, manifestly furnishes a direct contradiction of the assertion in the beginning of the paragraph above quoted. A somewhat similar contradiction is involved in the statement of the laws, old and new, as to the baptism of Jews.

"Formerly," says the author, "the Jews had always enjoyed, so soon as they were baptised, the same civil and political rights as orthodox Russian subjects; but in the year 1890 a ukase was promulgated providing that not the baptised, but only their grandchildren, descendants in the second generation, should have the full rights of citizenship. The result of baptism was merely to allow the baptised, but not his family, the right to choose his domicile in the Empire. This system of Pobiedonostseff therefore proved distinctly that he did not want to encourage the conversion of the Jews to the orthodox faith. With regard to them, the motive already suggested for the religious persecution under Alexander III., the attainment of homogeneity in the Empire by the incorporation of Dissenters with the orthodox Church, played no part."

It is refreshing to find Mr. Pobiesdonostzeff, the much-assailed, treated with fairness; and in a previous sentence of the paragraph the Tsar is coupled with him in a like statement. But it must be remembered that Alexander III. was still on the throne in 1890; so the "facts" are obviously self-contradictory. The ukase referred to, it may be said in passing, was a move in the right direction. No civil and political rights should ever have been granted as the result of "conversion" and baptism, which are naturally, under the circumstances, in the great majority of cases, merely a matter of form, as is frankly admitted by all parties concerned, when not speaking officially. The whole question should be readjusted on a radically different basis, with religion totally eliminated from consideration.

The author would appear to have visited Russia occasionally; but he cannot have been familiar with St. Petersburg, although so near his native land, judging from his repetition of the worn-out legend that Alexander III. "lived as a prisoner in his castle at Gatchina, coming very seldom to the capital, and then always so unexpectedly that no preparation could be made to waylay and slay him on any of his flying

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visits"; and that "during the last years of his reign, Alexander did not reside in the Winter Palace." He never lived in the Winter Palace (because of the painful associations connected with his father's death there), using it only for state ceremonials and court festivities, but, during his frequent stays in the town, resided in the modest Anitchkoff Palace, whence he drove out daily like a private person. When in residence at Gatchina (like any private citizen of any land who is fond of the country), or at Peterhoff during the hot season, his movements and trips to town were either announced beforehand in the morning papers, or could be calculated with absolute accuracy by every person acquainted with the Court calendar (or the Church calendar) and the most ordinary customs of the land, as the assemblage of vast throngs to greet him proved in countless instances.

One of the interesting features of the book is the quotation, in full, of the letter sent to Alexander II. immediately after his accession to the throne, by the terrorists who had assassinated his father. The demands and predictions therein contained are worthy of attention in view of recent happenings. Zilliacus, with commendable justice, recognizes the impossibility of compliance with the demands, the impracticability and imprudence of this "ultimatum" of the executive committee issued at such an inopportune moment, and admits that it indubitably contributed to the postponement by the Tsar of the definite ratification of Loris Melikoff's liberal proposals; apprehension concerning the ambitions of the Grand Duke Vladimir—and of the Grand Duchess, he might have added—also and rightly playing an important part. It must be conceded that more justice is done to Alexander II.'s character and aims than is the case in most books which deal with his reign; and the author says, in discussing the condition of affairs at that epoch, concerning that Emperor's biographers: "They have been unable to see that the apparently unrestricted autocratic power of the Tsar can, so far as he himself exercises it, be hardly called a power." Alexander III.'s widow, the Dowager Empress, who has been so widely and violently attacked as a bitter reactionary, he assigns to the reform and liberal party, with accompanying facts to support his view.

The picture which he presents of rural self-government is not encouraging to the concession of complete suffrage in national affairs; in point of fact, it reads like a chapter from the municipal history of certain great cities in the United States. The lack of proper revision may be responsible for certain irreconcilable statements, like that concerning the Dukhobortzy, whose numbers are given as four hundred thousand and four thousand (the latter being nearly correct) in the same paragraph. The author is mistaken in asserting that Count L. N. Tolstoy was excommunicated because of his attacks upon the Government. The excommunication arose from the same cause which has brought about excommunication from various sects in the United States within the last few years—attacks upon the tenets of the church of which he was a member, and the repeated announcement and propaganda of beliefs inconsistent with such membership, as the great writer himself was the first to recognize and proclaim. As to the expediency of the Holy Synod's action in that case, opinions varied very widely in Russia among the most zealous adherents of the Church, as well as among official classes, and it constitutes a separate problem. In summing up as to the chances for a revolution, our author admits that the masses of the people are "only to a very slight extent revolutionary in politics," and that the only way to interest them is by working skilfully on their chronic need and desire for more land.

With the exception of occasional slips, very few in number, the translation is entirely adequate.

BOOKS FOR MUSIC LOVERS.

Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians. Edited by Fuller Maitland. Macmillan.

The Oxford History of Music. Vol. II.: Polyphonic Period, Part II., by H. E. Wooldridge. Vol. VI., The Romantic Period, by Edward Dannreuther. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York; H. Frowde.

A Complete History of Music. By W. J. Baltzell and Others. Theodore Presser.

Music Dictionary. By Louis C. Elson. Oliver Ditson Co.

The second volume of the new edition of 'Grove' (as musicians, for short, call the most important dictionary of music and musicians in the English language) is, like the first, a great improvement on the original issue. In that issue the year 1450 was given as the point of departure. In the new version an elaborate article on Greek music calls attention to the fact that the field is now more fully covered. Japanese music receives attention, although, oddly enough, Chinese music was ignored in the preceding volume. Some of the leading articles, like Grove's on Handel, Pohl's on Haydn, Parry's on Harmony and its evolution, were so thoroughly admirable that little or no improvement was to be expected in the new edition. An elaborate bibliography of two columns has been added to Irish music. Gymnastics is a new head, under which pianists will find a discussion of the problem of training the hands by mechanical means. In place of Rockstro's far from up-to-date article on Orchestration, we have here a much better treatment of the subject by Corder, under Instrumentation, although this also contains questionable statements, especially regarding the use of trombones by Beethoven and Schubert and the "progress" in the art shown by a comparison of Weingartner's arrangement of Weber's "Invitation to the Waltz" with Berlioz's. The individual instruments are also more satisfactorily treated. The number of pages devoted to Liszt is doubled, and that many-sided man's achievements are discussed with intelligence and freedom from bias—an encouraging circumstance, for England has been the last country to appreciate Liszt. Of special value, also, is the complete classified list of this composer's works. "Libraries and Collections of Music" is an important new head, to which no fewer than 59 columns are devoted.

Under the head of individual musicians the bibliographic references are sometimes inadequate. American books, especially, are ignored. Indeed, American composers and writers on music are not by any means treated as fully as one would expect in a work of this kind, which is intended for the American quite as much as for the English market. In its five huge volumes one might hope to find at least as many American names as are included in Baker's 'Biographic Dictionary of Musicians' in one volume, or in the English 'Who's Who.' Of the leading writers on music in New York, Boston and other cities, only one is mentioned. The public may not be especially interested in the lives of critics, but it has a right to expect lists of their books, especially when, as happens to be the case in several instances, these are admitted, even abroad, to be the best on their subjects in the English language. Astonishment must also be expressed at the lamentably inadequate treatment of one of the greatest of all song writers, Jensen, who is disposed of in less than a column, while Löwe gets two and a half and the singer Farinelli seven! However, the shortcomings of the new 'Grove' are few compared with its many sterling qualities, not the least of which is that the longer articles are, for the most part, not only instructive, but admirably and even entertainingly written, in marked contrast to the articles in Mendel's similar encyclopædia in the German language.

What 'Grove' is among musical dictionaries, the 'Oxford' may be said to be among histories of music, so far at least as the English language is concerned. It is now complete, in six volumes, two of which remain to be considered critically—Mr. Wooldridge's 'Polyphonic Period,' Part II., and Edward Dannreuther's 'Romantic Period.' The appearance of Mr. Wooldridge's volume is somewhat belated, as it takes us back to the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries. An unusually large part of his volume—perhaps a fifth—is taken up with illustrations in musical type, which students will welcome because of the difficulty of access to many of the originals. Particularly good are the accounts of the *musica ficta*, the hexachordal system and the *faux bourdon*. The reference in a footnote on page 85 to Jean de Muris of the fourteenth century, complaining in his 'Speculum Musicæ' of musicians who create "a constant cacophony," yet are "full of confidence and ready to defend their intervals as 'new consonances,'" reminds one somewhat amusingly of Richard Strauss and his apostles in our day.

Of the writers who coöperated in producing the 'Oxford History of Music,' the most favored undoubtedly was Edward Dannreuther, for he had the period which is of most interest to music lovers of our time—the nineteenth century, with Weber, Schumann, Rossini, Donizetti, Verdi, Berlioz, Mendelssohn, Chopin, Liszt, Wagner, Tchaikovsky, Grieg, and other present-day idols. The author died, unfortunately, before he could add the final touches to his manuscript; but it was completely written out, and little remained for the editor, Mr. W. H. Hadow, to supply but the musical examples, which here, too, are given in great abundance. Mr. Dannreuther treats his period on the subject plan, and not the biographic. In other words, in dealing with Liszt, for instance, he does not devote a special chapter to him, but recurs to him repeatedly, in the chapters on Programme Music, Religious

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Music, Pianoforte Music, and Solo Songs. This plan has its advantages, as well as its disadvantages, which need not be dwelt on.

The author treats romantic music as an offshoot of literature: "a reflex of poetry expressed in musical terms, . . . a desire to produce musical effects suggested by natural phenomena; an art eager, sensitive, impulsive, which seeks its ideal of beauty through emotional expression." He does not dwell on the abundant germs of romanticism in Bach and Beethoven; nor does he sufficiently acknowledge the great rôle played by Schubert as a leader of the romantic movement (probably because Schubert is treated in vol. v., "The Viennese Period," by Mr. Hadow). But he discourses most eloquently and suggestively on the many innovations in operatic and instrumental music introduced by Weber; the pioneer who paved the way for Wagner and made his works possible. Schumann also is sympathetically treated. With programme music the author has little sympathy, nor does he point out the fact that Liszt's symphonic poems revolutionized concert music almost as thoroughly as Wagner's music dramas did the opera. It is amusing, too, in these days of Strauss, Reger, and D'Indy, to read complaints about Liszt's cacophony. Liszt always had a reason for his discords. More satisfactory is Mr. Dannreuther's discussion of Liszt's religious music. That Wagner fares well at his hands need not be said. In the otherwise excellent remarks about Chopin, it is amazing to find once more the preposterous assertion that that chief representative of the *tempo rubato* kept strict time with his left hand. Chopin was no barrel organ; Berlioz said of him he *could* not have kept time had he tried. More amazing still is the statement that "Schumann, in his *Lieder* and choral pieces, was the first of the Germans who troubled about correct declamation." Schubert was a model in this respect, even more than Schumann. One might point out other disputable criticisms, which the author probably would have modified on revision; but his book, on the whole, is quite worthy of the company in which it appears, and will probably enjoy a larger sale than any of the other volumes.

The most useful and up-to-date history of music in any language is Mr. Baltzell's. Although in one volume only, it has this in common with the Oxford History, in being the joint work of several writers, viz., W. J. Baltzell, H. A. Clarke, Arthur Elson, Clarence G. Hamilton, Edward Burlingame Hill, Arthur L. Judson, Frederic B. Law, and Preston Ware Orem, who treat of the different epochs, countries, and schools. Mr. Baltzell, who is the managing editor of the *Étude*, has succeeded surprisingly well in welding these contributions in a connected narrative, while avoiding repetition and clashes of estimates. Being intended chiefly for classes, or musical clubs, the chapters are followed by questions and suggestions as well as by bibliographic references. The modern national schools of Bohemia, Scandinavia, and Russia receive attention, and of the sixty chapters, three are devoted to music and musicians in the United States. Mr. Baltzell's volume thus serves as a sort of corrective of the English volumes above referred to, which so loftily ignore Americans, while growing garrulous over the Englishmen of all ranks. By way of emphasizing this injustice, we may as well quote what Mr. Judson has to say here about the English and their scant achievements in music. He admits that English folk-music ranks favorably with the best examples of other nations; but regarding that thirteenth-century canon, "Sumer is icumen in," of which the English are so proud, he remarks that "impartial historians believe most strongly that the canon is of French origin, reset to English words and carried to England by a student of the Paris school." He declares that—

"native composers have had more encouragement in England than usually falls to the lot of a creative musician. Indeed, England has always been a patron of the best in music, native or foreign; and no nation has, as a whole, been more generous in appreciation; her treatment of Beethoven on his deathbed is a notable example of disinterested generosity. But in real, original, creative art, England has had no great past."

One of the American books which have not been equalled in England is Elson's 'Music Dictionary,' a marvel of lucid condensation. In its 306 pages it contains not only the definition and pronunciation of such terms and signs as are used in modern music, but a brief list of composers and artists, a list of popular work in music, and an English-Italian vocabulary of musical words and expressions. In the vocabulary we have noted one important omission, Tonality. Some of the heads, like Suite, Sonata, Symphony, Pedal, Prelude, Temperament, receive a column or more of space, and are models of compact information, historic as well as explanatory. By an accidental oversight, Schubert and Schumann are not mentioned under Symphony. Not content with defining words, Mr. Elson has some sensible suggestions to make in cases where (as under Portamento and Rhythm) terms are used in a dubious sense. The book is printed with clear type on good paper.

A Book of the Riviera. By S. Baring-Gould. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

Winter sojourners on the Riviera are constantly asking for some book that will inform them as to the history, traditions, manners, and customs of the various towns of the region they happen to be staying in. Such books as exist are chiefly confined to the French Côte d'Azur, and especially to its archæology and ancient history. There are local guides also, but the ordinary visitor is apt to ask for more and for less at the same time—a wider range and less specialized. Mr. Baring-Gould's book is a partial attempt to meet this want; it does not stop short at Mentone, but includes Bordighera, San Remo, Alassio, and Savona; nor does it treat merely of Phœnicians, Greeks, and Romans, but essays to give the more striking and picturesque episodes of all periods, including quite recent ones. Mr. Baring-Gould says nothing, however, of the coast to the east of Savona. Necessarily his book is a compilation, made up from sources more or less easy of access and generally good. It is written in a clear and animated style, so that it should make pleasant reading for those who ask for a lively, anecdotic summary of the story and topography of the Riviera.

Still, as the French saying goes, the prettiest girl in the world cannot give more than she has got, and it would be useless to look to Mr. Baring-Gould's scraps of history for anything like thoroughness, completeness, or even accuracy. Let alone that his liveliness sometimes betrays him into flippancy, one soon perceives that he has not merely vulgarized his authorities—as often in the worse as in the better sense—but that he also misrepresents them on occasion. For instance, he borrows repeatedly from M. Lenthéric's excellent 'La Provence Maritime,' a book that is in the hands of every one who is seriously interested in the Riviera, so that there is no difficulty in seeing what sort of a sea-change Mr. Baring-Gould's statements have suffered in the borrowing. One example will suffice to show, for good as well as for bad, his method. On page 119 is found the following passage containing his version of thirty pages of Lenthéric (op. cit., pp. 320-350). He is writing of Fréjus:

"The ruins are many, but not beautiful; everything was built in a hurry, and badly built. The aqueduct was no sooner completed than it gave way and had to be patched up. The triumphal arch on the old quays is a shabby affair. The amphitheatre is half cut out of the natural rock. There was plenty of granite and porphyry accessible, but the builders did not trouble themselves to obtain large and solid blocks; they built of brick and small stone, without skill, and impatiently. The work was probably executed by corvées of laborers impressed from the country round. . . . On the ancient mole is the most perfect monument of Roman times extant in Fréjus. It goes by the name of La Lantern [*sic*]; but it was not a lighthouse at all, but a lodge for the harbor-master, who gave directions with a flag to vessels how to enter the harbor and avoid the shoals."

There is just the sort of rough fidelity in this summary that might be expected from one whose memory is not exact, who had read in haste, and who aims at making his recital "vigorous." Some statements are correct, some are slightly twisted, and some are positively misleading. That relative to "La Lantern" is of the last order: while undoubtedly not a lighthouse, it was certainly not a lodge, for, says Lenthéric, "l' édifice est complètement massif"—there is not even a staircase inside, and the use of the monument as a signal post is given only as a probable conjecture. The "flag" is of Mr. Baring-Gould's invention.

The part of the book relating to the Italian Riviera is rather meagre. Ospedaletti is mentioned only in a quotation from the 'Adèle et Théodore' of Mme. de Genlis, and beyond Savona everything is ignored, save for a paragraph or so about Genoa, ending with a passage so grotesque that we cannot resist the pleasure of quoting it:

"The palaces of the Lascaris, the Grimaldis, the Durazzos, the Della Roveres, the Dorias, are in ruins [!], but in their places rise hotels de Paris [!], de l'Univers [!], the Metropole; and the bands of bravos entertained by the nobles are replaced by Italian and Swiss waiters."

And this reflection inspires our author to quote:

"The more we read the history of past ages, the more we observe the signs of our own times, the more do we feel our hearts filled and swelled up by a good hope for the future destinies of the human race."

Mr. Baring-Gould's French is shaky on occasion (perhaps he thinks an accent a

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good thing in itself when he persists in putting one on the first syllable of René), and his Italian is positively dilapidated.

The book is illustrated with very pretty photographs, and there is a good index.

The Wild Flowers of Selborne, and Other Papers. By John Vaughan, M.A., Rector of Droxford and Hon. Canon of Winchester. John Lane Co. 1906.

Here we have another indication of the strong hold which the name of Selborne has upon the reading public. The title of the above volume as given on its back is simply, 'The Wild Flowers of Selborne'; but, within, the title-page gives the whole story—"and other papers." With one exception the other papers have little to do with Selborne or with Gilbert White, the naturalist who made it celebrated. Notwithstanding this, the whole volume is very acceptable even to those who are misled by its name.

Many attempts have been made to explain the charm which Gilbert White's 'Natural History of Selborne' possesses. All are agreed that much of this charm is due to the fact that he was a true pioneer and a faithful recorder of what was to be seen when the first rough paths were made. But there must be something over and above this fact that he was the first of the English-speaking nature-students. It has seemed to us that much of the attraction may be properly ascribed to the inherent tendency which people have to get others to do their work for them. Thousands do all of their fishing while lounging by the winter fire or idling in the hammock, with the last edition of Walton in the hand. Walton does more fishing to-day than he and Viator and Piscator together ever did in all their lives. And most of this fishing is done by those who hardly know the difference between a hook and a line. Gilbert White is eyes to-day for thousands who are too lazy to keep their own eyes open in the hundred Selbornes of the Old World and the New. It is vastly easier to have Gilbert White watch the flight of a bee or a bird, and tell you what happens, than to go out from the shadow of your own arbor and see for yourself. And, moreover, you know you are in good company when you do this: you have as your fellow-naturalists many who are likewise dozing in a hammock or reading by a fire. The Dutch say, "Those on the bank always skate best"; with Gilbert White to do your work in collecting, observing, and recording, you are sure to make no mistakes. As it was, he made only three, it is said; with these three corrected by the editors, you will not make any. In short, we carry on much of our out-of-door nature-study in the same way in which we accomplish wonders on the athletic field. With intense absorption we watch the professional base-ball or cricket champions in their startling feats, and there is not a spectator who does not move as the ball is thrown or the bat is swung. Everybody plays the game in this easy way; everybody shares in the victory or defeat, even if he knows very little about the game. It is probable that the spectators do not get quite as much exercise out of the game as the players do, although the old proverb says that they see more of it.

Now it may well be that this method of observation at second hand, by which we let Gilbert White do our seeing, is sound in principle and practice. It is certain that it is exceedingly popular at the present time, since, even with the scores and scores of recent nature-study books, Gilbert White is to have two new editions this very year. But this volume by Rector Vaughan is not one of them. It is a book which makes a lawful use of White's popularity, and tells us something about the present condition of the old district. It is to be regretted that the Rector does not tell us more. The first essay gives a pleasing account of a few of the plants which were rare or plentiful at the time White wrote (that is, ten years, or a little more, later than our Revolutionary war), and he speaks of some of the recent accessions. Among the latter is one of considerable interest, namely, our pretty Spring Beauty (*Claytonia*), which American plant has made for itself a pleasant home in these surroundings. The chapter on "The Wild Flowers of Selborne" occupies only eight pages. Next we have a chatty sketch, of about eight pages more, devoted to White himself; and then follow in succession the chapters on The Use of Simples, Pot-herbs, Wild Fruits, Wall-flowers, Poisonous Plants, and so on, until we come to the essays on Mary Rich, Countess of Warwick, Izaak Walton at Droxford, and French Prisoners at Portchester. From this list, which we have somewhat shortened, it may be gathered that whoever obtains this volume as an accession to his library of Whiteana may possibly be disappointed, but nevertheless will get his money's worth in cheerful gossip about matters that certainly would have interested Gilbert White.

Chronicles of London. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by Charles Lethbridge Kingsford, M.A., St. John's College, Oxford. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1906.

In his Introduction the editor tells us that "from the beginning at least of the fifteenth century, aldermen and citizens of London had shown their interest in civic and general history by compiling or causing others to compile, English Chronicles arranged under the years of the municipality. The Chronicles of London, which, as we now know them, thus came into being, can, however, trace their ancestry much further back. Early in the growth of municipal life there must have arisen the desire for a readily accessible record, giving at least the succession of city officers." Robert Fabyan, "to whose labors all knowledge of the Chronicles was for three centuries chiefly due," was but one of the last in a long line. The Chronicles of London are historical summaries from the point of view of the London citizen, to whom naturally the affairs of his municipality were of primary importance. But the vision of the chronicler was not limited to what has been called "the parish pump": he could "think imperially" on occasion. The great events of the kingdom find their place in the London Chronicles, even when those events are not immediately connected with the city. "To some extent," says Mr. Kingsford, "the Chronicles of London possess that personal element which makes 'memoirs' so fruitful in sidelights on history. Yet from this point of view they are often disappointing." This applies especially to the earlier portions of the Chronicles. The narrative, if it may be so called, is excessively meagre, being little more than a list of names. From the middle of the thirteenth century the record lengthens and becomes more interesting.

This volume contains four Chronicles printed from MSS. in the Cottonian collection. They are known respectively as Cotton. Julius B II, Cotton. Cleopatra C IV, Cotton. Julius B I, and Cotton. Vitellius A V. Of these one has been partly printed before, the other three are here printed for the first time. The Introduction states very carefully the relations between the MSS. and other Chronicles. The text is printed, so far as may be judged without collation, with great care, the pagination of the original being indicated in the margin. Appendices show the variations of texts, and the volume is completed with copious notes, a glossary, and a full index. It is impossible to praise too highly the manner of executing the work.

These Chronicles are for the most part very artless performances; their interest lies solely in the things told, not in the manner of telling them. They are the material from which skilled craftsmen like Holinshed and Stow compiled their annals. There is here no proportion observed. The chronicler took whatever came to hand. In the first of the series forty-four pages are given to a single year, 1399; two pages suffice for the next seven years. The Chronicle ends with Lydgate's long metrical account of the reception in London of Henry VI. The most valuable of the series is the "Vitellius Chronicle," the publication of which was desired by Dr. Gairdner more than forty years ago. It is recognized "as one of the best contemporary records of the reign of Henry VII." It contains a long, detailed account of the insurrection led by Jack Cade. A quotation showing what took place after the dispersion of the men of Kent, will convey an idea of the style of the Chronicle and of the manner in which Mr. Kingsford has dealt with the text:

"And when all were departed and goon there were made proclamaciouns, that what man cowde take the Capeteyn, Quyk or Deed, shuld haue a M^l^ marks for his labour: after whiche proclamaciouns made One Alexander Idon, Gentilman of Kent, toke him in a garden in Sowsex: but in the takying the said Capiteyn was slayne. And so brought into Southwerk that all men myght see hym, and that nyght left in the kynges bench, and from thens he was drawyn to newgate, and then hedid and quarterid; and his hede set vpon London Brigge. And his iiij quarters were sent in to dyuers Townes in Kent. And anone after the kyng Rode into Kent and commaundid his Justices to sit at Cauntorbury, to Enquere who wer accessariis and cawsers of this Insurrection; and there were viij men Jugged to deth in oon day, and in other places moo. And from thens the kyng Rode into Sowthsex, and from thens in to the West Cuntre, where a litell before was slayn the Bisshop of Salisbury. And this yere wer so many juggid to deth that xxiij hedis stode vpon London Bryge. Vpon whos soules Jhesu haue mercy."

Literature: Its Principles and Problems. By Theodore W. Hunt. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 1906.

As the title indicates, Professor Hunt, who occupies the chair of English Language and Literature at Princeton, covers

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a wide range, and we shall not attempt to follow him in detail. As to literature in the colleges, we are glad to see that he plants himself distinctly and emphatically against the extreme philological heresy so prevalent in the treatment accorded to literature by college teachers of recent years. On the topic of literary criticism we find his paragraphs involving either a slight self-contradiction or else lack of clearness in meaning. We are told that criticism must never be allowed to stand upon its own merits, must always be a mere means to an end, and never an end in itself; but at the same time we are assured, in the words of Professor Richardson and others, that the critical function is as high as the creative, that some criticism is creative literature in the best sense, and that not a few representative English authors have done their best work and won their highest repute in the critical field. "Critical genius is a distinct order of genius in the realm of letters." All this hardly leaves room for as sharp a distinction as Professor Hunt has asserted between criticism of literature and literature itself, though one may readily admit the entire fitness of the distinction as applied to the bulk of present-day "criticism," which is born under conditions practically prohibitive of any ascent into the realm of "creative literature." Literature could hardly be the gainer were critics to accept what our author calls "the better method, by which what is meritorious is magnified and all demerit reduced to a minimum." If press, pulpit, and legislative forum had spent the past year in magnifying all the good to be found in life insurance and reducing the offences of culpable insurance officers to the minimum, it would take very little printer's ink to record the reform legislation which would have resulted, and it does not yet appear, from any authoritative study of human nature and history, that the best way to set authors to uprooting the tares from their literary wheat-field is to minimize their presence and importance.

In a short chapter on "Hebraism and Hellenism," we think that the author does serious injustice to Matthew Arnold's position. Of course Arnold strongly contrasted the two tendencies, and pleaded earnestly for more of Hellenism in the attitude of the English-speaking world, but it is a mistake to assume that he favored the complete substitution of the one set of virtues for the other. It ought to be possible, in these days, to make the necessary allowance for somewhat extreme argumentative statement. We note that Professor Hunt introduces this chapter with a quotation from Miss Scudder's 'Social Ideals in English Letters.' It was in this same volume, if we remember rightly, that Miss Scudder seemed to do Arnold the injustice of assuming that when he asked of British reformers a pause for more light on the subjects in hand, he did not intend that they should go right on with their reforms as fast as adequate light for intelligent, and therefore effective, action should be secured. Arnold's final goal was surely nothing less than the essentials of the Hebraic instinct for conduct, enlightened and guided by Hellenic culture and insight.

L'Empire Libéral. Par E. Ollivier. Vols. I.-X. Paris: Garnier.

Histoire du Second Empire. Par P. de La Gorce. Vols. I.-VIII. Paris: Plon.

These two books represent two classes of literature, one of them, so far as the Second Empire is concerned, just coming into existence, the other just dying out: M. La Gorce writes history, M. Ollivier politics. M. La Gorce, with his eighth volume, has the distinction of completing the first history of serious merit of the reign of Napoleon the Third. M. Ollivier, with his tenth volume, continues his wordy but eloquent vindication of the part which he played in the Empire, and of that policy of liberal imperialism which was based on illusions and terminated in a cataclysm.

Nothing could be more rhetorically brilliant and more historically unconvincing than the apology of the Minister who engaged France in the war of 1870. The jealous rancor with which he constantly attacks Thiers, his obvious conceit, his affected superiority towards those giant statesmen who crossed his path, Bismarck and Cavour, his amusing belief that eloquence and wit are synonyms for statesmanship and wisdom, his frequent casuistry and occasional slips in accuracy—all these are matters that alienate a discerning reader and detract from the value of the book. And yet 'L'Empire Libéral' must take a high place in the historical literature of the mid-nineteenth century. It is the work of one of the conspicuous actors in the events narrated; it contains many sidelights on prominent persons—Napoleon, Prince Jerome, Morny, and others; it occasionally gives us new information in the form of unpublished material. In this respect more may be anticipated from the concluding volumes, in which we shall have the author's version of the Franco-Prussian conflict of 1870 unfolded.

The work of M. La Gorce is notable for very different reasons. Although consistently readable, he lays no claim to brilliancy or epigrammatic force. His work is one of careful historical research, well compacted, solid, and, for a writer whose antecedents are Bonapartist, singularly unprejudiced. The success of the book in France has grown steadily since the publication of the first volume; and now that the last is before the public, it is fairly safe to predict that it is likely to remain the standard work on the history of the Second Empire for some years to come.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Babelon, Ernest. Manual of Oriental Antiques. Putnams. $2.50 net.
Benson, Arthur Christopher. From a College Window. Putnams. $1.25 net.
Brooks, Mansfield. The Newell Fortune. John Lane Co.
Bruce, W. S. Social Aspects of Christian Morality. Dutton. $3.50 net.
Bryce, Catherine T. Robert Louis Stevenson Reader. Scribners. 40 cents net.
Burke, John Butler. The Origin of Life. F. A. Stokes Co.
Burrill, Katharine. Shell Gatherers. Dutton. $1.25 net.
Cripps, Arthur Shearly. Magic Casements. Dutton. $1.25.
Dunlway, Clyde Augustus. The Development of Freedom of the Press in Massachusetts. Harvard Historical Studies: Vol. XII. Longmans.
Etchings of Van Dyck. Imported by Scribners. $2.50 net.
Forrest, David W. The Authority of Christ. Imported by Scribners. $2 net.
Haldane, Richard Burden. The Pathway to Reality. 2 vols. Dutton. $3.50 net.
Hanks, Charles Stedman. Camp Kits and Camp Life. Scribners. $1.50 net.
Highlands and Islands of Scotland. Painted by W. Smith, jr. Described by Hope Moncrieff. Macmillan Co. $3.50.
Hugo's Hernani. Edited by James D. Brunner. American Book Co.
Inge, William Ralph. Studies of English Mystics. Dutton, $2 net.
Jackson, Gabrielle E. By Love's Sweet Rule. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co. $1.
Kenny, Louise. The Red-Haired Woman. Dutton. $1.50.
Kiser, Samuel Ellsworth. Thrills of a Bell Boy. Chicago: Forbes & Co. 60 cents.
Kinkead, Eleanor Talbot. The Invisible Bond. Moffat, Yard & Co. $1.50.
Lamb's Letters. Imported by Scribners. $1.25 net.
Lindsay, Thomas M. A History of the Reformation. Scribners. $2.50 net.
Lloyd, Henry Demarest. Man, the Social Creator. Doubleday, Page & Co. $2 net.
Longfellow's Tales of a Wayside Inn. Edited by J. H. Castleman. Macmillan Co.
Lubbock, Basil. Jack Derringer. Dutton. $1.50.
Mater, André. L'Eglise Catholique. Paris: Armand Colin.
Matthew Arnold's Merope. Edited by J. C. Collins. Henry Frowde.
McCall, Sidney. Truth Dexter. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
McCarthy, Justin Huntly. The Flower of France. Harpers. $1.50.
McIver, Allan. The Mechanic. William Ritchie. $1.50.
Meredith, George. The Ordeal of Richard Feverel.—Sandra Belloni.—Diana of the Crossways.—Vittoria. Scribners. $1 each.
Metcalfe, Francis. Side-Show Studies. The Outing Publishing Co. $1.25.
Montgomery, Thos. H., jr. The Analysis of Racial Descent in Animals. Henry Holt & Co. $2.50 net.
Morat, J. P. Physiology of the Nervous System. Translated by H. W. Syers. Chicago: W. T. Keener & Co. $7.50 net.
Morris, Clara. The Life of a Star. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Moulton, Forest Ray. An Introduction to Astronomy. Macmillan Co.
Ober, Frederick A. Pizarro and the Conquest of Peru. Harpers. $1 net.
Oliver, Frederick Scott. Alexander Hamilton: An Essay on American Union. Putnams. $3.75.
Page Story Book. Edited by Frank E. Spaulding and Catherine T. Bryce. Scribners. 50 cents net.
Paine, Ralph D. The Praying Skipper. Outing Publishing Co. $1.50.
Palmer Cox Brownie Primer. Text by Mary E. Judd. Century Co.
Pancake, Edmund Blair. Miss New York. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.50.
Phillips, Henry Wallace. Red Saunders's Pets, and Other Critters. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.25.
Pigafetta, Antonio. Magellan's Voyage Around the World. Translated by James A. Robertson. 2 vols. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Co. $7.50 net.
Pratt, Edwin A. Railways and their Rates. Dutton. $1.50 net.
Preston, Sydney H. On Common Ground. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Rives, Amélie. Augustine the Man. John Lane Co.
Robert Browning and Alfred Domett. Edited by Frederic G. Kenyon. Dutton. $1.50 net.
Robertson, Harrison. The Pink Typhoon. Scribners. $1.
Robinson, James Harvey. Readings in European History. Abridged ed. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Rowntree, Joseph, and Arthur Sherwell. The Taxation of the Liquor Trade. Vol. I. Macmillan Co. $3.25.
Russell, John Edward. An Elementary Logic. Macmillan Co. 75 cents.
Russell, J. B., and A. H. Bell. Notes on Volumetric Analysis. Dutton. 50 cents net.
Secret Life: Being the Book of a Heretic. John Lane Co.
Selrach. Fiduciary Precepts. Smith & Thomson.
Sergeant, Philip W. Jerome Bonaparte, the Burlesque Napoleon. Brentano's.
Shute, Henry A. A Few Neighbors. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1 net.
Sinclair, May. The Tysons. B. W. Dodge & Co. $1.50.
Singer, H. W. Dante Gabriel Rossetti. Imported by Scribners. $1 net.
Sladen, Douglas. A Sicilian Marriage. James Pott & Co. $1.50.
Smiley, James B. A Manual of American Literature. American Book Co.
Smith, C. Alphonso. Studies in English Syntax. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
Smith, Goldwin. In Quest of Light. Macmillan Co. $1 net.
Songs of Songs. Arranged by Francis Coutts. John Lane Co.
Sophocles's Philoctetes. Edited by R. C. Jebb and E. S. Shuckburgh. Macmillan Co. $1.
State Trials of the Reign of Edward the First, 1289-1293. Edited by T. F. Trout and Hilda Johnstone. London: Royal Historical Society.
Steffens, Lincoln. The Struggle for Self-Government. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.20 net.
Stringer, Arthur. The Wire-Tappers. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Sturt, Henry. Idola Theatri. Macmillan Co. $3.25.
Successful Teaching: Fifteen Studies by Practical Teachers. Introduction by James M. Greenwood. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1 net.
Swift, Jonathan. A Voyage to Lilliput. Cincinnati: Phonographic Institute Co.
Turley, Charles. Maitland Major and Minor. Dutton. $1.50.
Under the Sunset: Harper's Novelettes, edited by W. D. Howells and H. M. Alden. Harpers. $1.
Vámbéry, Arminius. Western Culture in Eastern Lands. Dutton. $3.50 net.
Vaughan's Sacred Poems. Imported by Scribners. $1.25 net.
Wilde, Oscar. The Picture of Dorian Gray. Brentano's. $1.50 net.
Wilson, C. T. Peasant Life in the Holy Land. Dutton. $3.50 net.
Wise, John S. Recollections of Thirteen Presidents. Doubleday, Page & Co. $2.50.
Witt, Robert Clermont. How to Look at Pictures. Putnams. $1.40 net.
Zedwitz, Baroness von. The Double Doctrine of the Church of Rome. Fleming H. Revell Co. 35 cents net.

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